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ABSTRACT

Intended especially for literacy workers, this monograph discusses the planning and organization of all the various approaches to the delivery of literacy work. It is divided into two main sections. The first part discusses the general principles of planning and organizing; it may be considered theoretical in nature. Its three chapters cover the planning and organization of literacy within the context of development in the Third World, understanding the planning process, and understanding organizations and their design, renewal, and change. Chapter 4 provides the transition to the second, practical part of the monograph. An ideal, fully functioning literacy system is described that is composed of nine subsystems. The nine chapters that follow deal with planning and organizing in relation to each of these nine subsystems: policy and planning, administrative and instructional delivery, technical support, social mobilization, curriculum and materials development, and evaluation. Each chapter describes (1) the planning and organizational objectives of the subsystem, (2) the planner system, and (3) the plan adoption system as defined by the objectives of the subsystem. Possible planning and organizational solutions are generated. A brief chapter of conclusions and a bibliography end the monograph. (YLB)

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PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION OF LITERACY CAMPAIGNS, PROGRAMS AND PROJECTS

By

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with

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1984

THE GERMAN FOUNDATION FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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PREFACE

Planning and organization represent two of the most important concerns of development in the Third World. Whatever needs to be done systematically, efficiently, effectively and with continuity, needs a plan and an organization. Whatever the size and scope of a development action in behalf of the people, we simply can not do without planning and organization.

Unfortunately, planning and organization are often the weakest links in the chain from the development aspirations of nations to the delivery of services to the peoples. Without a doubt, better planning and better organization of development activities improve returns on development efforts considerably, almost in every instance and without additional inputs of resources.

The understanding is also emerging that planning and organization are processes coexisting with implementation, and dynamically integrated into the life of a program of action. Planning is not something that is done in the beginning of a program and can then be forgotten forever. In reality, every plan is a rolling plan, always in need of review and repair as implementation proceeds and feedback becomes available. Similarly, organization is not a one-shot affair that is completed forever in one brilliant stroke. Indeed, organization is never finished. On every new day of work, organizational problems rise anew to demand attention.

Not only are planning and organization dynamically integrated into the life of a program, they are also functions distributed throughout the expanse of the program system. Planning takes place both at the upper-most level and the lower-most level; and at every level of the hierarchy mid-between. Similarly, every actor within an organization is an organizer with a particular set of organizational responsibilities and a unique set of organizational possibilities of his or her role.

Literacy work is no exception. Some of the most intractable problems experienced within mass literacy campaigns, large-scale literacy programs or smaller literacy projects can be attributed to the lack of good planning and organization. It should come as no surprise to anyone that considerable attention has been focused recently, in national and international forums, on the problems of planning and organization of literacy work. The International Institute for Educational Planning of Unesco organized an international workshop on the subject of "Planning and Administration of National Literacy Programs" during December 1980; and two years later followed it up with another international workshop on the subject of "Planning and Implementation of Literacy and Post-Literacy Strategies" in December 1982. The International Council for Adult Education together with the German Foundation for International Development organized two international seminars: the first in Udaipur, India in January 1982, and the second in West Berlin in October 1983. Both paid considerable attention to the problems of planning and implementation of literacy campaigns, programs and projects; and invited participants' attention to the need to systematize available experience in planning and organization of literacy work for discussion and utilization within literacy actions now being implemented in various Third World countries.

The present monograph, Planning and Organization of Literacy Campaigns, Programs and Projects, has been commissioned by the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) for use in a workshop to be conducted in Zimbabwe during March 5-16, 1984, and to be organized jointly by the Ministry of Community Development and Women's Affairs of the Government of Zimbabwe and the German Foundation for International Development.

The German Foundation for International Development (DSE) has been engaged in the training of middle-level literacy practitioners in Anglophone countries of Eastern and Southern Africa since the mid-1970s. Series of workshops have been conducted on the topics of literacy evaluation, curriculum development for literacy work, post-literacy and writing for new literates.

As part of its overall training strategy, DSE has commissioned training monographs, one for each of its different workshop series.[1] The objective has been to produce the much needed training materials for use during the conduct of the workshops; and to fortify the workshop experiences of participants with systematically developed technical materials that they could take back with them for review and further learning. The present monograph is meant to fulfill a similar training objective. We hope also that it will attract the interest of a wider audience of planners and organizers engaged in literacy work at the regional, national and international levels.

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[1] The four DSE training monographs already available are: Curriculum Development for Functional Literacy and Nonformal Education Programs, 1979; Program and Curriculum Development in the Post-Literacy Stages, 1980; Writing for New Readers: A Book on Follow-up Books, 1981; and Evaluating Development Training Programs, 1982. These monographs have attracted attention from far beyond the groups of participants that attended the DSE workshops. Literacy practitioner at various levels of responsibility and professionals of varied interests, all over the world, have used these monographs in a variety of settings.

We understand, of course, that planning and organization are processes that are rooted in particular socio-political and cultural contexts. Planning strategies or organizational solutions possible in one political culture may not be permissible in another. Yet our basic understandings of the planning process and of organizational behavior are transferable across national boundaries and ideological definitions. The monograph should, therefore, be found to be useful by literacy practitioners working in various ideological and political settings.

The monograph covers all the various approaches to the delivery of literacy work -- the mass literacy campaigns, large-scale or medium-scale literacy programs, or small literacy projects. The issues discussed will be found also to relate to a variety of programmatic approaches to the teaching of literacy including the so-called traditional literacy (limited basically to the teaching of the 3-R's); functional literacy (according to the definition of Unesco's Experimental World Literacy Program, with its focus on the teaching of economic skills); and the suggestion now being promoted for integrating literacy and post-literacy into programs for the provision of basic services.

As most of us already know, initiatives for literacy campaigns, programs and projects in the Third World have typically come from governments (or from political parties representing the regimes in power). This is so because in most developing countries, the government is often the only serious agent of social change, with access to any resources that could be allocated to literacy and development. The discussion in the monograph is, therefore, conducted from the vantage point of government as planner and organizer of literacy campaigns, programs and projects. This is not to suggest, however, that literacy work can not be undertaken by non-governmental agencies or by voluntary associations representing various religious or secular interests. In some countries, under a set of favorable historical and social conditions, it may indeed be possible for non-governmental voluntary associations to undertake national literacy campaigns or large-scale literacy programs. Those in positions of leadership in such campaigns and programs will also find the monograph of considerable use. All they will need to do is to adapt the discussion to their special vantage point.

One more point about possible audiences for this monograph. While the monograph is addressed to literacy workers, we are dealing in fact with the planning and organization of development work itself. The principles of planning and organization presented in the monograph, and the various issues discussed, should be of direct interest to all those working in the various programs of education, extension and animation that are typically part of integrated rural development in the Third World.

The present monograph, we hope, will serve as the first step towards the goal of putting scientific knowledge and systematic experience in planning and organization to work in the practice of literacy. The monograph has been written especially for the practitioner. While it is not meant to be academic, it is not divorced from the rich tradition of theory and research provided to us by the University. Technical jargon has been avoided, but important concepts have not been withheld. We have chosen to bring to the reader those ideas that the reader can do something practical with.

The monograph is divided into two main parts. The first part discusses the general principles of planning and organization and may be considered to be theoretical in nature. It consists of three chapters: Planning and Organization of Literacy in the Context of Development; Understanding the Planning Process; and Understanding Organizations: Designs, Renewal and Change. Chapter IV entitled, A Fully-Functioning Literacy System, provides the transition to the second part of the monograph which may be considered to be practical in nature. The nine separate chapters in the second part of the monograph deal in turn with the issues and problems of planning and organization of the Policy and Planning Subsystem; Administrative and Instructional Delivery Subsystem; Technical Support Subsystem; Social Mobilization Subsystem; Curriculum and Materials Development

Subsystem; Teaching-Learning Subsystem; Post-Literacy Subsystem; Training and Staff Development Subsystem; and Evaluation Subsystem of the overall literacy system. A short chapter concludes the monograph. A bibliography is appended.

It will be naive to dismiss the discussion conducted in this monograph as unnecessary bureaucratization of literacy work and of the lives of literacy workers. There is place in this world, of course, for the inspiration of the moment, for spontaneity, for courage, and for doing the unexpected. But inspiration, courage and spontaneity are no substitutes for thoughtful planning; and systematic organization. Indeed, the presence of systematic planning and of good organization makes bold initiatives possible. Planning and organization are not in and of themselves the tools of the oppressor, as some might extravagantly claim. They are tools which can be used also by the peoples to resist the excesses of the bad planner and of the insensitive bureaucrat -- by counter-planning and by counter-organizing. It should be seen that the principles we have discussed apply both to the formal institutions of the state and to the popular organizations of the peoples.

We have argued with ourselves about whether to deal with theory and research first, and then go on to practical chapters; or to present practical chapters first, and theory and research later. We decided ultimately to put the "rules" first, and "applications" later. The practically inclined may, however, skip the theoretical chapters and go directly to Chapter IV.

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Bloomington, IN, USA
January 31, 1983

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Planning and organization have been studied extensively by social scientists. Books on planning and organization could fill miles of shelves in a library. This monograph is a brief and preliminary introduction to a fascinating field. The reader will also notice that the chapters in the monograph provide a list of questions that the planner and organizer of literacy work must ask. The monograph also catalogs the problems that might be faced by the practitioner in the field. What to do about all those problems and how to answer all those questions is not fully discussed. For that we will need to write a book in lieu of each chapter in this monograph. And even then answers given and solutions provided will not be exact for they are rooted in social reality, history and time. Indeed, exact prescriptions can not be provided.

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A short bibliography on books on planning and organization is appended.

PART I

CHAPTER I

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION OF LITERACY IN THE CONTEXT OF DEVELOPMENT

Development is the aim, the design, the hope and the dream -- the ultimate objective of nations all across the Third World. Development is what we are talking about. We have chosen here to discuss the planning and organization of literacy because we seek to put literacy to work in bringing development to the people burdened with poverty and helplessness; and to societies abused and exploited, or simply bypassed, by history made by others.

What is development?

Definitions of development are many, but *modernization* and *democratization* have to be at the core of all definitions of development.

In most of the Third World, development must mean higher levels of production (and consumption) of goods and services; and a higher production of goods and services can not be achieved without *modernization*. Modernization need not, of course, be equated with Westernization. But modernization can not be brought about without the application of science and without the utilization of appropriate technology.

Development must also involve *democratization*. People should have the opportunity to participate in their political, social and economic institutions. They should, thus, be able to ensure that what is produced is justly distributed. They should be able to make certain that the institutions of the society serve the interests of all its people.

Modernization and democratization are necessary for development in the Third World. However, they are by no means sufficient. Beyond the needs for nutrition, the paved road, the health clinic, the cooperative bank and the voting booth, there are the needs of the human spirit. Unfortunately, the economies of scarcities in the Third World have brought with them also moralities of scarcities. Engaged in the brutal competition for scarce goods and services, people seem to have sacrificed some of their most precious values. Their moral fibre has been stretched beyond the limit. Development must return to the people the pride they have lost; must refill the value vacuum; and help them overcome the crisis of morality.

Education and development

Development will not descend, like gentle rain, from the skies. Development will not come by happenstance. We will have to work for development. To undertake modernization, to promote democratization, and to engender a new civic morality, we will need to invent new visions; learn to respond to new incentives; renew existing institutions; and, wherever necessary, create new institutions to serve economic, social and political needs.

Without good men and women to work in them, institutions become empty shells -- forms without meanings. We will need human resources to sustain and continuously recreate the society's institutions -- economic, social, educational, cultural and political -- in a never-ending dynamic process. Human resources are developed by education. We must educate, train, retrain, socialize and re-socialize men and women, young and old, to play the roles required of them as home-makers, farmers, animators, cooperative secretaries, agronomists, factory workers, engineers, nurses, doctors, accountants, lawmen, lawyers and legislators.

Literacy and development connection

The role of education in development is not limited to formal education. Nonformal education -- defined as organized and systematic learning carried on outside the formal school system -- has an important development role in the Third World. The role of nonformal education in development is certainly as significant as that played by formal education, if not considerably more significant.

Nonformal education, at its best, is organized, but not fully and formally institutionalized. It is systematic, but not routinized. This means that nonformal education can fulfill a variety of learning needs as and when those needs arise. It can provide useful knowledge, attitudes and skills to the rural poor and to the urban slum dweller that they can put to work right away to improve their lives as they live them. Because of its emphasis on communication rather than certification, nonformal education has been extremely innovative in its choice of materials, methods, media and settings of teaching and learning. An important advantage claimed for nonformal education is that it can be carried out through nonprint media such as pictures, radio and TV. Adults and young people do not have to be literate to acquire new knowledge, attitudes and skills through nonformal education.[1]

A group of educators and development specialists have been persistent in pointing out that nonformal education through nonprint media and without literacy should be seen only as a halfway house on way to the goal of nonformal education with literacy and media. The full argument in behalf of nonformal education with literacy has been presented elsewhere.[2] In the following paragraphs, we present only a brief sketch of the argument.

Literacy and nonprint media (radio and TV) supplement and complement each other but the two can not be substitutes for each other. A particular message when transmitted through the two different media does not remain one and the same message. History, of course, does not wait and "Time keeps on burning!" The illiterate must be provided development information over the media. But a crisis should not be confused with constancy; nor the strategic with the enduring policy goals. The media should be put to strategic use whenever necessary but within an overall policy framework, literacy should be central to all "development support communication." Literacy should not be made to wait, because literacy alone will release the adult from dependency upon the media man and enable the learner both to consume information and to produce information; both to code and to decode messages about life, work and social relations.

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[1] H.S. Bhola, Nonformal education in perspective. Prospects, Vol. XIII, No. 1, 1983, pp. 45-53.

[2] H.S. Bhola, Why literacy? Why literacy can't wait? Why mass literacy campaigns? -- Issues for the 1980s. Convergence, Vol. XIV, No. 1, 1981. pp. 6-23.

It is also speculated that perhaps the "grammar" of message making for radio and TV communication is such that the illiterate gets less out of the nonprint media than does the literate. More importantly, literacy creates a new confidence in the new literate, if not a new identity. New relationships emerge based on new mutualities of expectations. Literacy is "potential added" and in the worst of socio-political conditions must create a constructive discontent. Under more congenial social circumstances, literacy contributes to the empowering of individuals, by making their conscientization, politicization and organization more likely to occur. Indeed, literacy should need no justifications for it is a human right, and must be accepted as such.

What is literacy?

Looking for universal definitions of literacy is no different from looking for universal definitions of the good society, of beauty, of an educated man, or for that matter of a sixth grader. Yet, literacy workers have tried!

W.S. Gray established a minimum standard of literacy as "the ability to read an easy passage and to write one's name or a simple message."[1] But what is an easy passage, and what is a simple message?

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[1] W.S. Gray, The Teaching of Reading and Writing. Monographs on Fundamental Education, No. X. Unesco, Paris, 1969. p. 20.

Gray also defined a higher standard of literacy in his concept of functional literacy as "the knowledge and skills in reading and writing which enable [an adult] to engage effectively in all those activities in which literacy is normally assumed in his [or her] culture or group."[1] This definition of functional literacy by Gray makes the content of knowledge and level of literacy skills both relative to the social and cultural context of the individual learner.

As if this was not enough, literacy workers have made both methodologies and ideologies part of their definitions of literacy. For instance, the definition of functional literacy propounded by Unesco in 1965 made both methodological and ideological assumptions. The ideology was that of work-orientation and economic development, based on intensive development actions within selective economic sectors of promise. The methodology was to be rooted in the psychology of man at work. According to this new concept of functionality, literacy instruction was to "enable illiterates, left behind by the course of events and producing little, to become socially and economically integrated in a new world where scientific and technological progress call[ed] for ever more knowledge and specialization."[2]

Ten years later in 1975, a new methodology and a new ideology were made part of the definition of literacy. The Declaration of

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[1] W.S. Gray, Ibid., p. 24. Please note that this definition of functional literacy is different from the definition of functional literacy promoted by Unesco in 1965 as part of its Experimental World Literacy Program.

[2] Unesco, World Conference of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy: Final Report. Unesco, Paris, 1965. p. 29.

Persepolis[1] adopted by the International Symposium for Literacy held at Persepolis, Iran, during September 3-8, 1975 "considered literacy to be not just the process of learning the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, but a contribution to the liberation of man and to his full development. Thus conceived, literacy creates the conditions for the acquisition of a critical consciousness of the contradictions of the society in which man lives and of its aims; it also stimulates initiative and his participation in the creation of projects capable of acting upon the world, of transforming it, and of defining the aims of an authentic human development." The ideology was of literacy for liberation; the methodology was that of dialog based on significant themes from the lives of learners.

What then is literacy? It should have been clear from the above that a definitive and universal definition of literacy might be impossible to write. Literacy is not one general ability but a compound of relativities. Standards of performance in reading and writing will be relative to the language of literacy (Chinese versus Kiswahili, English versus Arabic); to the subject matter of the text (fiction versus political philosophy); the abilities of the reader in handling the mechanics of codification and decodification and the reader's understanding of "how the world works"; and, finally, the instrumental functions assigned to literacy in different socio-political and cultural contexts at a particular historical time.

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[1] Declaration of Persepolis, distributed by the International Coordination Secretariat for Literacy, 42 bis, Avenue de Saxe, 75007 Paris, France.

The conclusion to draw is that a definition of literacy will always be contextual and somewhat arbitrary. As literacy workers responsible for various campaigns, programs and projects, we should stop looking for a universal definition of literacy but develop our own definitions. Such definitions must make sense in our particular contexts of needs and functions. These definitions should be concrete enough so that these can be operationalized. We should be able to share these definitions among all workers across the total literacy enterprise; and together should be able to take actions that contribute to our common purposes.

Approaches to the delivery of literacy: Campaigns, programs and projects

In the title of this monograph, we had promised to talk about the planning and organization of literacy campaigns, programs and projects. As we take a look at literacy work being conducted in various parts of the world, we find that literacy workers do give their literacy enterprises different names. Some call them literacy campaigns and do not want to be called literacy programs. Some label their enterprise as a literacy program and wish not to be referred to as a campaign. Some literacy enterprises are simply called literacy projects. The campaign, the program and the project are, thus, not merely analytical categories that we have invented; these descriptors are actually in use in the real world. But how are campaign, program and project different from each other; and how are they similar? Elsewhere,[1] I have defined these three approaches to the delivery of literacy as follows:

A campaign to be so called is an organized large-scale series of activities intensely focused on a set of objectives to be achieved within some pre-determined period of time. A campaign has about it a sense of urgency and combativeness. It is politically "hot". It is the most important thing that needs to be done, at that point in the history of the nation. It is planned as an expedition or as a crusade. All available resources of the nation are to be at its beck and call, should the need arise.

A program is also a planned and systematic activity. It could be both large-scale and time-bound just like a mass campaign, but it is politically "cool".[2] It is development action without political passion; urgent, but without dash and a certain impatience. It is one of the many "most important tasks" that a nation must accomplish. It gets its share of resources; and it is expected not to lobby for more, but to get the most returns from resources budgeted for the program.

A project is a small-scale program, with its objectives very strictly (even narrowly) defined within a larger program of development and confined perhaps to a small geographical area or an economic sector. Literacy actions conducted under the Unesco Experimental World Literacy Program during the 1970s; and literacy work now being promoted as part of the delivery of basic services both fall under the category of projects.

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[1] H.S. Bhola (in collaboration with Josef Müller and Piet Dijkstra), The Promise of Literacy. Baden-Baden, FRG: Nomos Verlagsgesellschaft, 1983. p. 206.

[2] Maybe it is lukewarm!

Choosing among approaches to literacy

Planners and organizers of literacy work do not always have a choice: political leaders and policy makers at higher levels decide the approach to be adopted by the nation for the delivery of literacy services; and they decide whether to give their literacy action the name of a program or a campaign. It is important to be aware, however, of the relative strengths and weaknesses of the three approaches to literacy so that as planners and organizers, but at least as citizens, we can back one approach rather than another, and perhaps influence policy makers.

Unfortunately, some educators and practitioners of literacy first define a literacy campaign much too narrowly and then deride the idea of the campaign as defined by themselves. A campaign, for example, is called a "staged event" with the purpose of achieving quick and dishonest political gains, but teaching adults no more than the rudiments of the 3-R's and sometimes no more than how to sign one's name. Some campaigns may have done exactly that but that is not necessarily a part of the definition of the campaign.

Other groups of educators and practitioners of literacy have suggested that a campaign to be so called has to be intense and to be strictly time-bound. Thus, for them the Cuban literacy campaign (1961) and the Nicaraguan literacy campaign (1979) may have been the only true campaigns. By their definition, the literacy efforts of the USSR, China, Viet Nam, Tanzania, or Burma do not qualify as campaigns, even though those countries may have called them campaigns.

We suggest that the above conceptualization of the campaign misses the point of what makes a campaign a true campaign. A campaign is a campaign because of the level of commitment of leadership to the eradication of illiteracy; because of the scope and style of popular mobilization and of the resources of the state; and because of the heat of the political passion surrounding the literacy enterprise. A campaign makes the eradication of illiteracy business unusual. It need not, however, have to have a life of only a few months. A campaign may be a series of intense actions one built upon the other, year after year; or a campaign could spread incrementally, in phase after phase, to cover a whole society over the years.

In other words, a campaign is different from a program only in terms of its urgency and in its style of mobilization of peoples and resources. A campaign will often have a unified vision, but it need not be uniformly implemented all over the land. Indeed, a successful campaign will accommodate local interests and local initiatives; and will build upon a multiplicity of actions which will be experienced by local communities as their own and unique local projects.

The position of the writer of this monograph on the selection of approaches to the delivery of literacy services is this: We should campaign for literacy.[1] The campaign strategy is the only strategy commensurate with the size and scope of the problem of illiteracy in the Third World. The view that literacy campaigns may be only for socialist states or may be possible only during times of revolutionary change is not quite correct. Liberal democracies can also organize literacy campaigns if they resolve to do so. If we can sell tooth paste or run election campaigns every four to six years, covering the length and breadth of a whole sub-continent such as India, there is no reason why we can not run a successful literacy campaign. If the year of national independence or of the people's revolution is far behind us, the time for a literacy campaign is not forever lost. If time is opportune for the social transformation of the country, time is right for a literacy campaign as well. Therefore, the campaign strategy is what we should promote as planners, influentials and citizens. But if they do not declare a campaign, let us not sit back and wait. We must do whatever is possible -- a program, a project, a literacy class under a tree, or just one-teaching-another.

Planning and organization in the context of development

In the opening paragraph of this chapter, we asserted that the promotion of effective development efforts in the Third World is the whole reason for the present monograph. Development provides the context for our discussions. We have already elaborated on the relationship of literacy with development. We now undertake the task of establishing a relationship between planning and organization on the one hand, and development on the other. In so doing, we will deal with many words and definitions of words. "Words, words, words!," Shakespeare's Hamlet had muttered in exasperation. There is no justification, of course, for being unnecessarily wordy, or verbose in educational and social scientific writing; but then we can not do without technical and specialized words and phrases. New ideas and concepts have to be given names -- before they can be discussed. We must have words to unlock the world.

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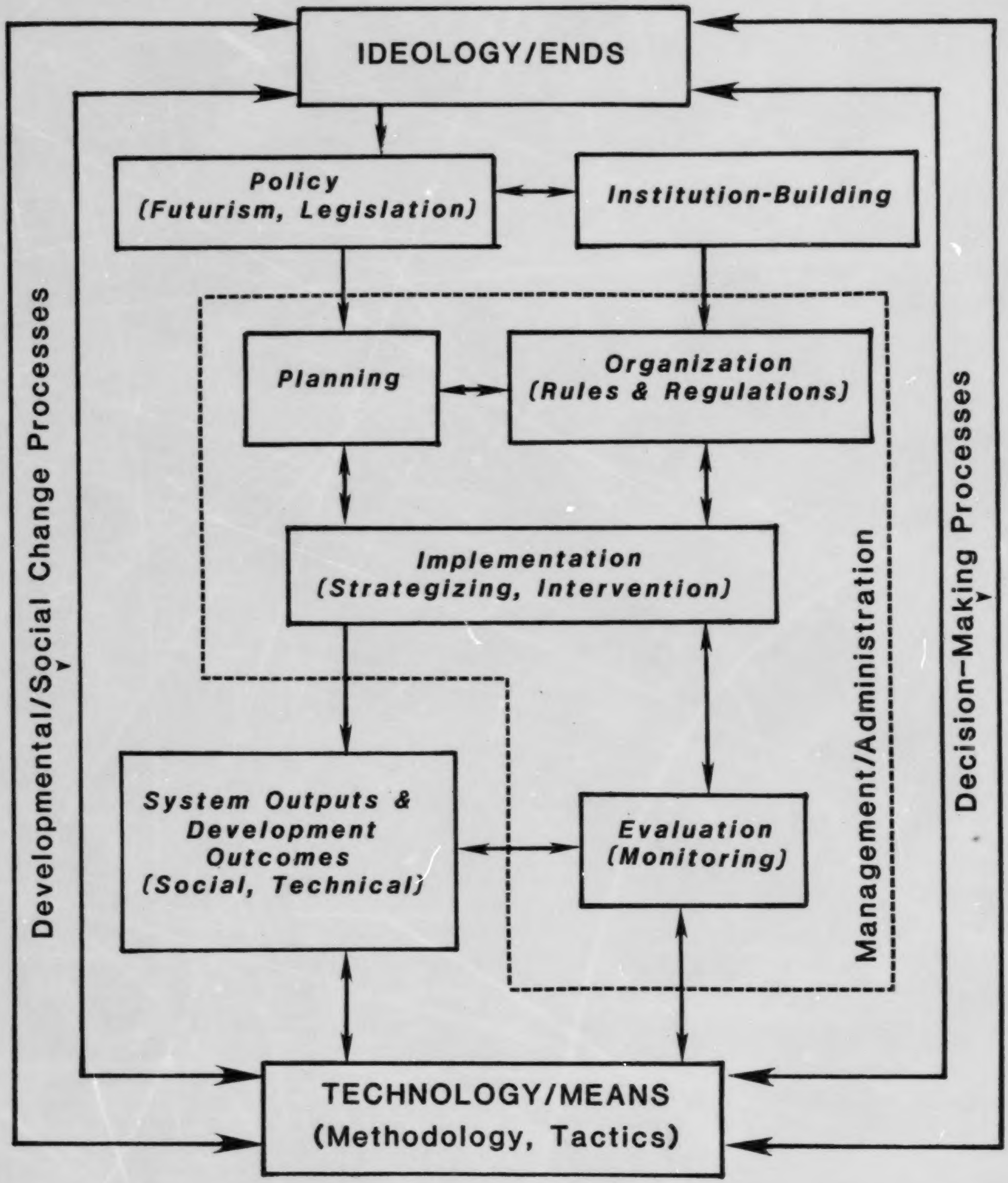
[1] H.S. Bhola, Campaigning for Literacy. Unesco Surveys and Studies (ED-82/WS/67). Unesco, Paris, 1982.

Not only do we have to have new and specialized words (jargon, if you will!), but [illegible] must also use these specialized words with invariance -- that is, each word must mean the exact same thing when used by different scholars and practitioners. "That which we call a rose, by another name will smell as sweet", but we must then agree upon that other name for the rose to be able to talk about the rose at all. For the professional educator, there's a lot in a name!

The words ideology, technology, social change, decision-making, policy, institution-building, management, administration, planning, organization, implementation, evaluation, outputs and outcomes have been given particular meanings in the discussion that follows. The reader should note these definitions and examine how they might differ from those he or she currently holds. The graphic on the next page presents the various interactive relationships between and among these various concepts and processes.


IDEOLOGY/ENDS
Policy (Futurism, Legislation)
Institution-Building
Planning
Organization (Rules & Regulations)
Implementation (Strategizing, Intervention)
System Outputs & Development Outcomes (Social, Technical)
Evaluation (Monitoring)
Management/Administration
TECHNOLOGY/MEANS (Methodology, Tactics)
Developmental/Social Change Processes
Decision-Making Processes

Planning and Organization
in the Context of Development

The ideology and technology calculus

The first point to note in the graphic is the interactive relationship that has been assumed between ideology and technology -- that is, between means and ends. Some of us are aware of how material conditions have often influenced the ideologies of peoples at different historical times. The opposite influence of ideologies on the development and choice of physical and social technologies can be seen much more clearly. The ideology of a nation, for instance, will determine whether a group of policy-makers choose capital-intensive technologies or labor-intensive instruments of production. Again, a military dictatorship is unlikely to use literacy methodologies associated with the name of Paulo Freire.[1] Even in the creation of knowledge about our world, our ideologies get in our way. Some choose experimental methods, others naturalistic strategies, and others participatory research methods for making statements about our world.

Second, it should be noted that the "ideology x technology" or the "means x ends" calculus (in other words, the choice of options based on calculations of inputs, processes and results) is involved in planned change at all levels, ranging from national development, through a mass literacy campaign, to organizational change, to instruction within a group of adult learners.

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[1] Paulo Freire, Pedagogy of the Oppressed. New York: Herder and Herder, 1970.

Third, the "ideology x technology" or "means x ends" calculus is another name for decision-making. The "ideology x technology" calculus to bring about development or planned educational or social change involves a continuous never-ending series of decisions. Looking inside the rectangular boundaries of the graphic above, we find mention of processes of policy-making, institution-building, management, administration, planning, organization, implementation, and evaluation. All these processes involve decision-making as well. Decision-making is thus a generic term. Indeed, life itself has sometimes been called a series of judgments and decisions.

Ideology

Let us begin with a definition of the word ideology. Ideology in daily conversation is often used pejoratively, "as a systematic distortion, exaggeration, or simplification" that in fact keeps one from understanding and evaluating the real world of experience and action. When used descriptively in professional discussion and discourse, ideology means "a body of ideas that serves as a guide or impulse to action."[1] Ideology is thus "a system of ideas that are coherent and meaningful; the goals of a social movement and their justification; [or] the principles which underlie the structure of a government or an economic system."[2]

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[1] Paul E. Sigmund (Ed.), The Ideologies of the Developing Nations. New York: Praeger Press, 1972. p. 42.

[2] John T. Zadrozny, The Dictionary of Social Sciences. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1959. p. 157.

Technology

Technology should be understood in its most general sense as "extensions to human capacities." These extensions may be provided by engineering technology: the microscope to enlarge what is invisible to the naked eye; the telescope to bring the distant closer; explosives to blast off mountains; and the airplane to fly over deserts and oceans. Or, extensions to human capacities may be provided by social technology: methods of teaching and training, behavior modification or propaganda, research methods and computer programs, and tactics of group control and organization development.

Policy

As can be seen from the model presented earlier, policy stands between ideology on the one hand, and planning on the other. Policy statements convert an ideology (a society's view of its total social arrangements in relation to the state) into relatively specific, action-oriented intentions and proposals. Thus, through policy making, political, social and economic values are changed into political, social and economic vectors -- the direction a society will take, and the distance it will go in the preferred direction.

In its most general meanings, policy-making is directing and harnessing social power for preferred social outcomes.[1] In the view of this author, policy-making is involved, if and only if, there is the intention on the part of policy-makers to influence the existing distributions of power within a social system. Since new distributions of power bring about or result from new distributions of economic, social (and educational) goods, a definition of policy can be stated as follows:

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[1] H.S. Bhola, The design of (educational) policy: Directing and harnessing social power for social outcomes. Viewpoints, Vol. LI, No. 3, 1975. pp. 1-16.

> Policies are general intents for obtaining or reinforcing preferred distributions of power, status, economic and educational goods among groups and classes within a society; and for harnessing societal resources for obtaining preferred outcomes.

Policy making as a process is close to futurism, a process involving systematic anticipation of the future, designing alternative future scenarios and making needed interventions to actualize preferred future states.

Policy-making is often equivalent to legislation -- the making of laws, ordinances, edicts and decrees promulgated by an official organ of the state.

If the definition of policy-making as proposed by this author is accepted, it then follows that only political actors and polities have policies. Parents may have rules about their children staying out late; but they do not have policies. Cafeterias, reading rooms, and customs services do not have policies, they only have rules and regulations for "obviating the need for forming a new solution for every new problem and case" and "to facilitate standardization and equality in the treatment of many cases."[1]

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[1] A. Etzioni, Modern Organizations. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964. p. 53.

Institution-building

Policies, as per our definition, not only establish new directions for the society, they also develop mechanisms for harnessing the societal resources for bringing about new preferred outcomes. Institution-building is the name given to this later activity--of harnessing societal resources.

In the literature of social sciences, we come across discussions of (i) social institutions and (ii) formal institutions. Social institutions are customs or systems that form part of a society or civilization, such as, age-sets, marriage and slavery. Formal institutions are corporate bodies engaged in the performance of societal tasks such as governance or providing justice, health, or education. When we talk of institution-building, we are talking of building formal institutions, and not social institutions.

Institutions should also be distinguished from organizations; and institution-building should be separated from organizational design. We will define organizations later on, but an analogy may be in order here. An organization may be to an institution, what a house is to a city. There are many common considerations in constructing a house and in building a whole city. One can not build a city without constructing many houses. Yet, building a city involves qualitatively different questions from those involved in the construction of a house. In the same way, there are many common considerations in designing an organization and in institution-building. And, one can not do institution-building without designing many organizations. For example, there is a qualitative difference between introducing cooperatives in a country (institution-building, and later establishing individual cooperatives in different villages (organizational design).

Institution-building is a polito-technical process. The cooperative movement when first introduced has to fight many existing vested interests of banks and money-lenders. Organizational design is socio-technical. The individual cooperative has to create a fully functioning organization within a particular social context. One way to visualize institution-building will be to think of it as the "launching of a new system of action in the existing institutional space of the society." Thus, the process must respond to the logic of political and technical processes requiring systemic adjustments with institutions already existing in the society, and involving with them complex relationships of competition and collaboration.[1]

Planning

In the dictionary meanings of the term, to plan is to devise a scheme for doing, making, or arranging; and to have in mind as a project or purpose. In professional literature, "planning is a multimeaning term, but at the very least, it implies efforts to shape the future with the help of structured rationality, systematic knowledge, and organized creativity... [It is] the process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future, directed at achieving goals by preferable means."[1] Minimally, to plan is to generate various action alternatives for achieving intentions of a policy; to choose among those alternatives; and to develop an efficient and effective scheme for achieving those objectives within a particular time-frame.

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[1] H.S. Bhola, Institutional Approaches to Innovation and Change (II): The Configurational Perspective on Institution-Building. Bloomington, IN.: Indiana University, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 122 454).

The relationship between policy-making and planning should be noted. Planning follows policy-making. Policy-making, as was indicated earlier, is primarily political -- involved in obtaining or reinforcing preferred distributions of power, status, economic and educational goods. Planning is primarily a matter of technical expertise, dealing with how best to bring about those distributions mandated by policy-makers.

But policy-making and planning functions can not be separated too neatly in the real world. Policy makers do have technical concerns as they engage in the art of the possible. Planners, on the other hand, do often have to tiptoe through the political arena as they design and choose among alternatives that touch the lives of real people.

Organization

To organize is to bring together, to form as a whole, or to make a combination for a common objective. An organization is thus a number of individuals systematically united for some end.

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[1] Y. Dror, Ventures in Policy Sciences: Concepts and Applications. New York: American Elsevier Publishing Co., 1971. p. 95.

Once again, we must distinguish between formal organizations such as offices, shops, and local branches of the national party; and informal organizations (also called social organizations) of peer groups, friendships and factions within communities. Our interest in this monograph is in formal organizations and in linking formal organizations with social organizations in communities for purposes of motivation and mobilization.

Structurally, an organization is a group of people who have come together to do a job systematically and with an expectation of continuity. They formalize their mutual obligations into roles and agree to subject themselves to some rules and regulations. Organizations are what emerge from the interaction of these roles and rules along the technical and social dimensions.[1]

Implementation

To implement is to supply the conditions and requirements for a plan to be fulfilled. Implementation, thus, is putting something into effect, or the fulfillment and carrying through of an idea, policy or plan. It is during the implementation stage that strategies of intervention are made and actually put into practice.

For too long, planners had made blueprints of action and stopped there. They did not reflect in their plans, the problems of implementation. Good planners today integrate implementation into their planning. They give serious attention to questions such as these: What will the implementing organizations do to our plans? How will people, for whom the plans are being made, respond to these plans? How is the environment (both cultural and physical) likely to effect the implementation of our plans?

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[1] H.S. Bhola, Some introductory lessons on 'organizational literacy' for functional literacy workers. The Design of Educational Programmes for the Promotion of Rural Women. (Report of an international seminar, held in Teheran, Iran, April 19-24, 1975), 1975. pp. 109-136.

Evaluation

Evaluation[1] is the process of assigning values to judge the amount, degree, condition, worth, quality or effectiveness of something. As a specialization, evaluation involves collection and analysis of data objectively, systematically, and with exactitude to serve a variety of decision-making needs.

A part of evaluation may be called monitoring. To monitor is to check upon an ongoing program for flaws or breakdowns, to enable decision-makers to regulate activities and to undertake corrective action. Monitoring depends upon performance data generated by programs in the process of their implementation which is often collected in the form of what are called management information systems (MIS's).

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[1] H.S. Bhola, Evaluating Functional Literacy. "Literacy in Development" -- a series of training monographs commissioned by the International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods, Teheran, Iran. (H.S. Bhola, Series Editor). Amersham, Bucks, U.K.: Hulton Educational Publications, Ltd., 1979. Also, H.S. Bhola, Evaluating Development Training Programs. Bonn, FRG: German Foundation for International Development, 1982.

Management

The dictionary defines management in terms of administration -- the art and practice of administration. Students of management like to think of management as a science, not merely as an art or practice based on common sense. A professional definition of management is provided by Good as "a distinct process consisting of planning, organizing, actuating and controlling the work of others, performed to determine and accomplish objectives."[1]

Actuating is, of course, another word for implementation. Controlling includes evaluation. Thus, management is a comprehensive process. For the management of a development program all the four processes of planning, organization, implementation and evaluation will have to be considered.

Administration

As we just mentioned, the dictionary defined management in terms of administration; and administration in terms of management. Thus, administration is also a comprehensive process under which planning, organization, implementation and evaluation are all subsumed. One distinction is, however, made between management and administration. While management is a term generally used within the private sector, the term administration is typically applied to governmental institutions and programs within the public sector.

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[1] C.V. Good (Ed.), Dictionary of Education. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973.

Outputs and outcomes of development planning

It is conventional to use the term output to describe the immediate products of planning and program implementation. Examples of outputs from a literacy system will be primers, newspapers, trained teachers and new literates. However, the outcomes of a successful literacy system will be higher productivity of farmers and workers; lower infant mortality and lower morbidity among adults; and creation of new developmental institutions in the community. Successful implementation of policy initiatives through proper planning results in both outputs and outcomes; and these, in turn, are both social and technical.

The ideal and the reality

We must keep in mind that the graphic we have discussed in such detail in this chapter is only an idealized version of the substantive and the temporal relationships between and among the various processes of policy-making, institution-building, planning, organization, implementation and evaluation. In the real world of action, things do not happen exactly in that way.

National ideologies are not always properly articulated and often have inherent contradictions. Policies do not always follow from ideologies, but merely rationalize whatever might be going on. Plans may often be oblivious to both ideologies and policies. Institution-building may be of no concern to the policy-maker, nor any attention may be paid to the design of appropriate organizations. Plans may come after implementation has taken place; or plans may often become mere substitutes for action. Evaluation may never be conducted; may be conducted too early, before the program had had a chance to show results; or evaluation may be conducted too late, when no use can be made of evaluative information for the improvement of the program.

We should not be so foolish as to demand that the real world stop and fit into our model, before we will do anything about planning, organization and social change. We must begin where we must; we must do what needs to be done -- always keeping the ideal in our mind and seeking to approximate to it as best as we can.

CHAPTER II

UNDERSTANDING THE PLANNING PROCESS

We are all planners; and we plan all the time. If to plan is to have a scheme and a method to make the scheme work, then all purposeful human behavior has to involve planning.

Indeed, it does. We plan our evenings and our holidays; we plan birthday parties, feasts and festivals; and we plan our visits to relatives and friends. We plan our monthly budgets and our shopping trips to the market. Farmers plan their whole lives around the seasons and the weather.

Most of the plans, of most of the people, work out quite well. But sometimes, plans turn out to be bad, even disastrous. Money is wasted, time is lost, opportunities are dissipated, and pride is injured. As individuals engaged in everyday planning, using commonsense strategies, we are accountable only to ourselves and to our families. We absorb the losses from bad planning, promising to be more careful in the future. Sometimes, we call it bad luck when it was clearly a bad plan. We refuse to learn.

But as development workers spending public funds to advance the public interest, we are accountable to the public, and more immediately to our superiors. We can not -- for our own sake, and for the sake of the public -- afford to merely use commonsense strategies in making development plans. We must plan expertly -- using a creative mix of intuition and intellect.

Expert planning: its limitations and possibilities

The concept of expert planning should not raise our hopes too high. Expert planners, inspite of their best efforts, can not always make perfect plans. Indeed, the record of successful planning has been so modest that planning has been ridiculed as an exercise in optimism. There is neither ground for unabashed optimism, nor for unremitting cynicism, however. What we need to do is to understand both the limitations and the possibilities of planning.

An expert definition of planning was given in Chapter I and may be recollected here. Planning was defined as "the process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future, directed at achieving goals by preferable means."[1] The limitations of the planning process should be obvious even from this short definition. Planning is about decisions in the future; and future, by definition, is unknown. The process of preparing a set of alternative decisions requires demographic, social and economic data which is often unavailable. In addition to this data, we need social scientific models that will correctly anticipate collective human behavior in response to various planning options. Such models are also not available.

There are, in addition, political limitations to the planning process. Policy makers may have some political purposes to serve and, by manipulating the allocation of resources, may make it impossible for planners to develop and implement the best possible alternatives. At another level, vested interests entrenched in communities, in bureaucracies and in the larger polity may not allow the plans to succeed. There are a hundred ways for people with vested interests to subvert plans while pretending to cooperate in their implementation.

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[1] Y. Dror, Ventures in Policy Sciences: Concepts and Applications. New York: American Elsevier Publishing Co., 1971, p. 95.

These then are the limitations, but there are possibilities in the planning process as well. A methodology and technology of planning has become available over the years which can be used to make both qualitative and quantitative planning more effective and more efficient. By becoming self-conscious and systematic about planning, we are now able to (i) define planning objectives more clearly and to state them in operational terms; (ii) rise above routine perceptions of future possibilities and invent creative planning alternatives; (iii) bring together different authorities and perspectives to understand both the present and the future possibilities; (iv) use social scientific theory to anticipate generally the community responses to different planning options; and (v) collect, store and retrieve information needed for the design and evaluation of alternatives.

Section A

Planning: ideological contexts and planners' perspectives

Let us begin by referring to the graphic, "Planning and Organization in the Context of Development" in Chapter I, on pages 32. We need to remember that planning is one special instance of the general "ideology x technology" calculus. Differing ideologies and varied levels of technology interact to produce differential plans. Planning solutions are not absolute, but are relative to political arrangements, historical settings and material cultures. Finally, the planner as a historical actor affects the planning process and planning solutions that emerge.

Ideological context of planning

As we have indicated above, planning is a relative process and produces pragmatic planning solutions. Indeed, the meaning of planning itself differs from one socio-political system to another.

The ideology of a society is best manifested in the political agenda (or the political project) of the country. The political orientation of the regime will determine planning objectives and, therefore, planning solutions. P. Latapi[1] of Prospectiva Universitaria, Mexico City, Mexico identified three possible orientations to planning:

1. The functional option is in the techno-rational mode. The planners wish to expand services but not to seek new distributions of power, status and economic goods within the society. Thus, the status quo is reinforced. People's participation in such planning is largely irrelevant.

2. The reformist option is a combination of the political and the technical mode. Planning is done in behalf of the government seeking to effect gradual socio-economic change according to an accepted ideology.

3. The radical option is basically in the political mode. Planning becomes social activism, even a mode of subversion. The planner is typically outside rather than within the governmental structures.

It should be clear that the planner can not decide to be reformist or functional, participative or bureaucratic, independently of the prevailing political arrangements within which planning takes place.

Cultural, historical and institutional contexts of planning

The larger cultural context of planning, again, influences both the planning process and the planning solutions chosen for implementation.

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[1] Quoted in Hans N. Weiler (Ed.), Educational Planning and Social Change. Report of an IIEP Seminar. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning (Unesco), 1980, p. 147.

The linguistic diversity, the prevailing work ethic, norms of social behavior, and patterns of habitation, all influence the means and ends chosen by the planner.

The historical and institutional contexts of planning, similarly, influence the planning process and the planning strategies preferred. The particular history of the colonial experience of a country and, thereby, of its institutional experience, will determine planning modes and planning solutions. Formal institutions will determine planning approaches in yet another way: by cooperating or not cooperating inter-institutionally; by being able to delegate or not to delegate authority to the lower levels; and by having or not having experience in cooperating with non-governmental voluntary associations and organs.

The planner as a historical actor

The planner as a person, participating in the planning process, will also determine the quality of the planning process and what sorts of planning solutions are ultimately selected. Is the planner from the elite in power; or from the counter-elite against the establishment? Is the planner in the role of an intellectual offering analyses of planning strategies; or is the planner a practitioner who will, later, implement those very same plans? Is the planner committed to the planning objectives; or is the planner engaged in brinkmanship, subverting planning objectives, as far as possible, from within? Answers to all these questions will help us understand the many different planning solutions being produced and advocated.

Institutional affiliations and hierarchical locations within bureaucratic structures will also determine planning possibilities and planning solutions available to planners. First of all, it will matter whether the planner is an international civil servant (working for UNESCO, UNICEF, WHO, FAO or the World Bank); or whether the planner is part of the national bureaucracy. In the later case, the planner's location in the upper level, middle level, or at the community level will change the character and aspects of planning problems and responses that those planning problems will demand.

Temporal context of planning

The temporal context of planning, too often neglected, both in the analysis and in the implementation of the planning process, is also important. There is a significant difference between planning in the short-term context of a crisis; and planning in the long-term framework of a policy. In the crisis situation, the development planner may be distributing food and medicines; but within the longer time-frame of policy, the planner will be arguing, perhaps, for literacy, and for training of barefoot doctors and community nurses for the same populations.

Planning is time-sensitive in yet another way. There is pre-implementation planning; there is co-implementation planning; and, finally, there is post-implementation planning. These three phases of planning create different types of planning problems and invite different kinds of planning solutions. Thus, whether a planner comes on the scene before the implementation, during the implementation or after the implementation of a program will require different kinds of planning actions.

Planning with a foreign consultant

Planning with a foreign consultant is a fact of life in many developing countries. At its best, a foreign consultant comes to become a valued colleague: helping in the analysis of development problems and in the definition of planning objectives; assisting in the conceptualization of planning needs and approaches; acting as a resource for planning techniques and tools; becoming a link with networks of resources elsewhere; and acting as a trainer of personnel at all the various levels of the hierarchy, in planning procedures. At its worse, the foreign consultant as a planner, by imposing alien visions and borrowed models, distorts the process of planning and of social change and development. Or, the foreign consultant is neither of the above, but becomes a nuisance, a disruption, a person who comes to the country, collects available documents and data, conducts interviews, and summarizes all that into a report. In the poignant words of a Third World planner: The consultant comes, looks at our watch, and tells us the time!

A knowledgeable foreign consultant can be used with considerable advantage but the local planners must control the planning process. To exert control, the local planner will have to have vision, courage and considerable preparation to be able to enter the consultant-consultee relationship as a leader. Leadership requires hard work and strenuous effort.

Section B

Planning as knowledge utilization

Expert planning can be seen as a systematic attempt to make use of knowledge in defining planning objectives, in preparing alternative sets of decisions, in choosing among them, and in implementing choices with optimal means.

Three types of knowledge are involved:

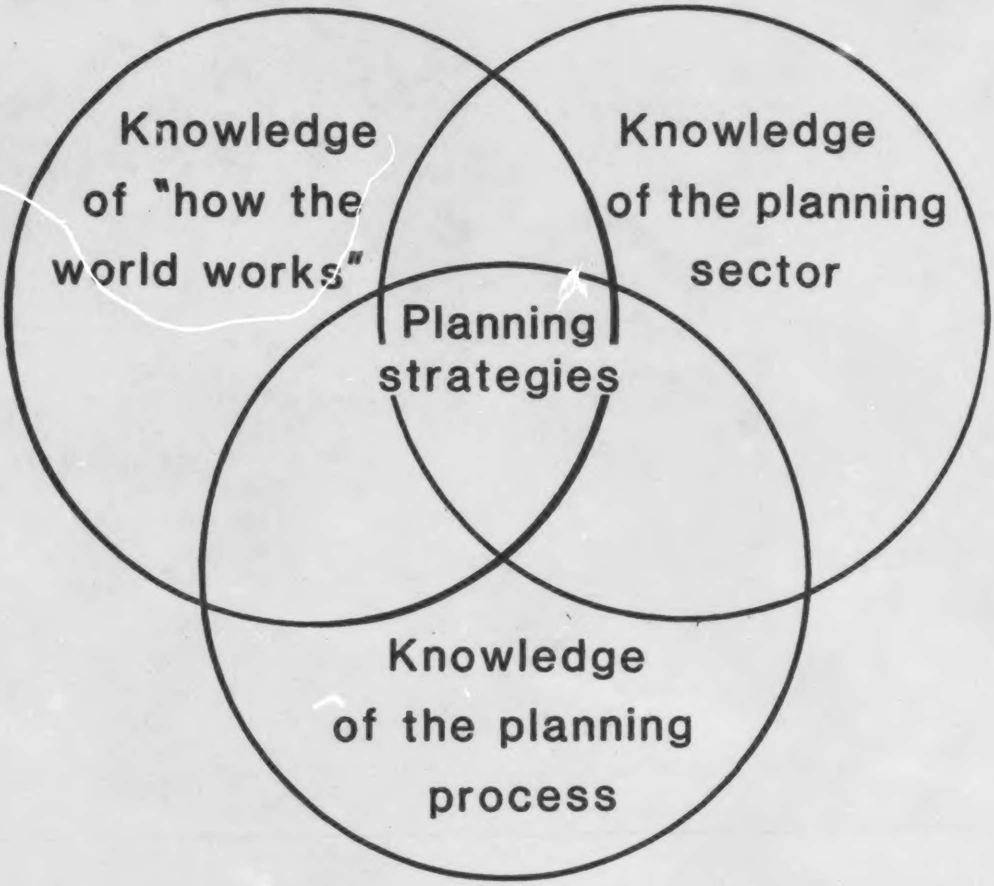
1. Knowledge of "how the world works"
2. Knowledge of the planning sector, and
3. Knowledge of the planning process, models and tools.

Planning strategies emerge where these three circles of knowledge overlap. (See the graphic, "The 3-K's of Social and Educational Planning" on next page.)

Knowledge of "how the world works"

Planning is for development, for social change. To change a society, we must know how societies are put together. We must know how our social world works. If we do not have a general understanding of "how the world works", we can not engage in planning for development.

As we look around, we can see that our social world (as distinct from our material world) is full of individuals, groups, institutions (or organizations) and communities (or sub-cultures). Thus, to understand the social world would require that we understand individuals, groups, institutions and communities that make up this world. To understand "how the world works", that is, to understand the dynamics of social change, we must know how individuals learn and what motivates them to change. We must know how groups are formed and sustained so that we can help groups to solve problems, perform tasks, and provide their members with mutual support and a sense of solidarity. We should know how organizations work and how these organizations might be renewed, redesigned and re-made to serve new organizational purposes. We must also know the social organization of communities; the existing structures of power and influence within them; their patterns of communications and the rewards and sanctions


Knowledge of "how the world works"
Knowledge of the planning sector
Planning strategies
Knowledge of the planning process

The 3-K's of Social and Educational Planning they use to socialize members; and we should know how they absorb the new and discard the old. Indeed, we need to know much much more about individuals, groups, institutions and communities to plan for effective change.

What the above means is that the planner has to be a social scientist of the "generalist" variety. While the planner should be a generalist who knows something about all social (and behavioral) sciences, the planner must have considerable specific knowledge in context. The planner should not only know generally about individual motivations, but must also know about the motivations of the particular people for whom the plans are being made. The planner must understand local groups, indigenous institutions, and patterns of communication of local communities, in his or her own society. We have to know the people we plan for.

Using "collective knowledge" about the world

If the planner has to have all this knowledge of social and behavioral sciences, does it mean that planning can be done only by the grand expert planner, highly qualified and fully grounded in the social and behavioral sciences?

How then do ordinary officers working in government ministries and departments, at upper, middle and lower levels, engage in planning, without first becoming accomplished social and behavioral sciences? There is an answer.

First, it should be stated quite clearly that typical officials and functionaries employed at various levels of governments in the Third World should develop a thirst for knowledge. They should acquire both general social scientific knowledge and culture-specific knowledge.

Government planners do need to read more than they read now; and do need to know more than they know now about individuals, groups, institutions and communities that they seek to serve. Planning is a knowledge-based enterprise and the planner must acquire all the knowledge he or she can, by reading relevant literature. Reading is conversing with a knowledgeable friend. It does help.

While these government officials are growing as individuals, and becoming more knowledgeable about "how the world works", they must use "collective knowledge" in their planning, in the meantime.

At the institutional level, it will mean that planning is not done by a single officer and his or her section, in isolation from everyone else. Planning is too serious a matter to be left to an individual. It must be a group process. The planning group should be so constructed as to include officers from all the various sectors involved and should represent different levels of responsibilities. This will ensure that different organizational perceptions and different types of experiential knowledge will be reflected in the planning process.

The planning group should also establish consultancy relationships with scholars and researchers in the universities, research institutions and special centers in the country.

The collective knowledge of communities should be used as well in the planning process. Local leaders and common folk should be brought together in people's seminars and community workshops, for them to contribute to the planner's knowledge of "how the world works", especially their world of day-to-day living.

Finally, planners must validate their plans by exposing them to the criticism of their peers and of the people. Let everyone contribute. Let the people validate! This "social process" of planning may be the best substitute for any lack of social scientific knowledge among planners and planning institutions in the Third World.

Knowledge of the planning sector

Having knowledge of "how the world works" is not the same thing as having knowledge of the particular sector of the planner's interest.

In planning literature, sector is the name used for a constituent segment of the overall development enterprise. A sector to be so called is in constant interaction with other sectors, yet can be seen as bounded and complete. A sector can be seen to have an integrity of its own in terms of its structure and its function. Thus, at one level, we talk about the modern sector, the traditional sector, the industrial sector and the educational sector. At another level, we talk about the higher education sector, the primary education sector, and of the nonformal education sector.

Adult literacy (which is the focus of this monograph) can also be seen as a sector. Let us be reminded that to call literacy a sector does not imply a mono-sectoral approach to literacy. The challenge of planning literacy is indeed to keep the literacy sector in constant interaction with other sectors of the overall development enterprise. The literacy sector must be linked, at the same time, with the agriculture sector, the health education sector, the family planning sector and the formal education sector.

In the section immediately preceding, we emphasized the need for the planner to know "how the world works." We will now make the point that the planner must also know "how the sector works" -- the particular sector of the planner's interest. While development sectors such as agriculture extension, primary health education, family planning, nutrition and child care, and adult literacy in the Third World have some similarities, they all differ from each other in significant ways. To plan effectively, the planner must know the particular sector of his or her concern.

What would it mean to know the literacy sector?

To know the literacy sector would mean that the literacy planner has adequate knowledge about most of the following:

(i) The meaning of literacy and its various definitions

(ii) Ideological and political contexts of literacy; and the discussion surrounding literacy as a human right

(iii) Socio-economic justifications of literacy; and effects claimed, in behalf of literacy, on individuals and societies

(iv) History of the diffusion of literacy in different societies; and the cultural effects of literacy in different historical and political settings

(v) The politics of resource allocations to literacy, to development extension and to formal education

(vi) Various approaches to the delivery of literacy to illiterates in rural and urban areas, and to the style and scope of mobilization for literacy promotion

(vii) Problems of choice of the language of literacy

(viii) Development of technical systems in support of training and research related to literacy

(ix) Development of curricula for literacy work, and of suitable mix of national, regional and local learning needs

(x) Pedagogical methods appropriate to adult literacy work in various settings

(xi) Design and production of instructional materials for learners, and of training materials for teachers

(xii) Recruitment and training of teachers, supervisors and other field staff

(xiii) Motivation of learners, and development of people's organizations for support of the literacy program

(xiv) Post-literacy program development and delivery

(xv) Evaluation of literacy outputs and outcomes, and

(xvi) Strategies for linking literacy with life-long education and to the vision of a learning society.[1]

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[1] Literacy planners should be interested in the series "Literacy in Development", a series of eight monographs, commissioned by the Unesco/Iranian International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods, Tehran. The eight monographs were: The Use of Radio in Adult Literacy Education by Richard C. Burke (1976); Programmed Instruction for Literacy Workers by S. Thiagarajan (1976); Learning to Read and Reading to Learn: An Approach to a System of Literacy Instruction by Sohan Singh (1976); The ABC's of Literacy: Lessons from Linguistics by Kenneth Baucom (1978); Towards Scientific Literacy by Frederick J. Thomas and Alan K. Kondo (1978); Toward Understanding Visual Literacy by Anne and Fred Zimmer (1978); Evaluating Functional Literacy by H. S. Bhola (1979); and Games and Simulations in Literacy Training by David Evans (1979). These monographs were published in English by Hulton Educational Publications, U.K.; in Spanish by Oficina de Educacion Iberoamericana, Madrid; and in Arabic by the Arab Literacy and Adult Education Organization (ARLO), Bagdad.

Four further monographs have been commissioned and published by the German Foundation for International Development, Bonn, FRG: Curriculum Development for Functional Literacy and Nonformal Education

Once again, the literacy planner must know the literacy sector generally, as well as specifically. While some literacy issues may be common to many different countries and some social characteristics may be shared across many societies, the planner must be aware of the sectoral realities peculiar to his or her own society.

How does a planner acquire all this sectoral knowledge? In answer, let us repeat our earlier advice: The planner must read a lot. The planner must use all the technical help available from colleges, universities and research centers in the country (and abroad). The planner must make use of "collective knowledge" available within the organization and among the people who deal with their realities every day of their lives.

Knowledge of the planning process, models and tools

Finally, to be able to engage in effective planning, the planner must understand the planning process and must be familiar with some of the planning models and tools that have become available.[1]

In the following section, we will deal with one planning model that we consider particularly appropriate to planning for implementation.

Programs, 1979; Program and Curriculum Development in the Post-Literacy Stages, 1980; Writing for New Readers: A Book on Follow-up Books, 1981; and Evaluating Development Training Programs, 1982. All the four monographs were authored by H. S. Bhola.

Readers should also see H. S. Bhola, Campaigning for Literacy. Unesco Surveys and Studies. (ED-82/WS/67). Paris, Unesco, 1982.

[1] Peter Delp and Associates, Systems Tools for Project Planning. Bloomington, In.: International Development Institute, 1977.

Section C

CLER as a planning model:

Dialectics between planner system, planning objectives and plan adoption system

Let us begin with two important comments. The first comment relates to the nature of models; and the second relates to the ever-tentative nature of planning.

We must understand that models are to "think with" -- they will never do our thinking for us; and they will never release us from the obligation to invent and to choose.

Again, plans are never final; they are tentatively-held finalities. Plans must be changed on the basis of feedback provided by implementation; and these changes must be made as often as the realities demand.

The model presented below is a model of "planning for implementation." The model is a systems model that considers the realities of both the planner system and the plan adoption system. Rarely do planning models pay any attention to the plan adoption systems. This model does. Second, the model of planning presented here is a dialectical model. In simple terms, what is assumed is that (1) the planner system, (2) the planning objectives and (3) the plan adoption system continuously interact, one with the other. None of the three is primary, and none of the three is fixed. They are all in flux, mutually defined, each by the others, depending upon the context and the moment.

Graphically, the relationship can be shown as three blocks in dialectical relationships as represented by arrows:

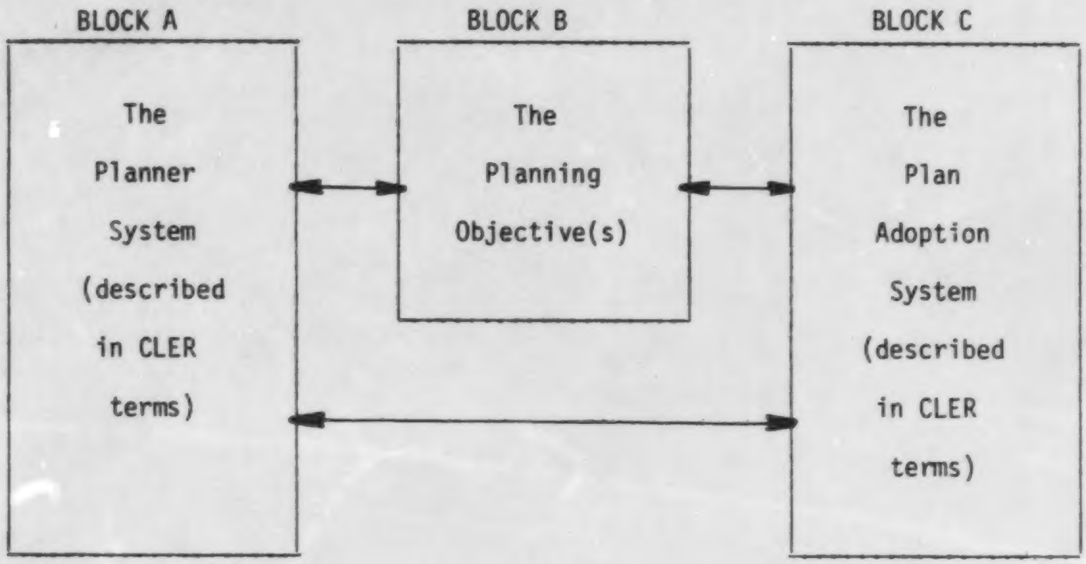
BLOCK A
BLOCK B
BLOCK C
The Planner System (described in CLER terms)
The Planning Objective(s)
The Plan Adoption System (described in CLER terms)

Fig. The ABC/CLER model of planning for implementation.

The planning procedures suggested by the above model are the following:

1. Delineate and describe the planner system, as it is when planning is initiated, in CLER terms. (We will discuss below what it means to describe a planner system in CLER terms).

2. Describe the planning objectives -- general and specific.

3. Delineate and describe the plan adoption system, again, as it is when planning is initiated, in CLER terms. (We will discuss below what it means to describe a plan adoption system in CLER terms).

4. Think of Block A and Block B together; of Block B and Block C together; and of Block A and Block C together; and list all the possible things that must be done to achieve planning objectives. (Sometimes, it may be necessary to change, or at least to phase, the planning objectives themselves.)

4.1 Recycle the process in (4) above to make planning actions more and more concrete. Go from "what to do" to "how to do."

5. Arrange the "things to do" generated in 4 and 4.1 above in a functional-cum -temporal sequence to develop an operational plan of activities that is time-sensitive.

6. Quantify as far as possible to establish size and scope of activities, resource allocations and time schedules.

Describing systems in CLER terms

Elsewhere, Bhola[1] has suggested that when the objective is to plan for change in education or development, both planner system and plan adoption system should be delineated and described in the dynamic vocabulary of the CLER model

C: Configurational relationships

The C in the CLER model stands for configurations and network of configurational relationships existing within a system. The dictionary defines a configuration as an arrangement of the parts of a thing or the form resulting from them. The parts that enter these configurational relationships to create complex networks are of four types: individuals, groups, institutions (or organizations) and communities (or sub-cultures). At least three of these parts (groups, organizations and communities) are, in turn, themselves social configurations. The questions to ask in describing a planner system or a plan adoption system are: What individuals, groups, institutions and communities are crucial to the systems and what are the relationships among them as established by custom, tradition or law. Once we know how they are, we can start thinking about how they should be to serve our planning goals.

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[1] H. S. Bhola, Planning change in education and development: The CLER model in the context of a mega model. Viewpoints in Teaching and Learning, Vol. 58, No. 4, Fall 1982, pp. 1-35. (US ISSN 0160-8398 is available from the School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN., 47405).

L: Linkages

The L in the CLER model stands for linkages. Linkages are necessary for information and influence to actually move across the networks of configurational relationships. Linkages may be formal (as within an office or a factory) or may be informal (as within a village community).

Linkages are needed between those who plan and those who are the prospective beneficiaries of planning. But linkages are necessary also within the planner system, and within the plan adoption system.

In describing a planner system or a plan adoption system, questions must be asked about formal and informal linkages existing between the two systems as well as within each of them. From descriptions we can go to prescriptions: What should be done to existing linkages for plan implementation to come about?

E: Environment

The E in the CLER model stands for the environment. Environment is comprised of all physical, social and intellectual conditions and forces that impinge continuously on a configuration. Environment is thus all that controls the behavior of the planner system and the plan adoption system but itself is not subject to their control.

It is possible for the planner system to be open to one kind of environment and for the plan adoption system to be open to another kind of environment. In fact, it happens quite often in Third World development.

An environment may be supportive, neutral or inhibitive in regards to the design and implementation of particular plans for change.

In describing planner systems and plan adoption systems, planners must describe environments and the limitations and possibilities imposed by these environments. They should also start thinking about what to do about those environments.

R: Resources

The R in the CLER model stands for resources. The CLER model suggests that both the planner system and the plan adoption system need resources. The planner system needs resources to develop plans for change and to provide material, institutional and educational inputs necessary for the implementation of plans. The plan adoption system also needs resources to adapt and to adopt plans and to make the new objectives part of their lives and work. Planners too often forget that receiving often involves giving -- adoption of innovations offered by planners requires allocation of resources by the adopters as well. You can not give a poor man the gift of an elephant. It is expensive to keep!

Resources are of at least six kinds: conceptual, influence, material, personnel, institutional and time. (The acronym CIMPIT will help the planner to memorize the list of resource types.) In describing the planner system and the plan adoption system, due attention should be paid to the listing of resources available to planners and implementers as well as to the peoples for whom plans are being made and to whom services are meant to be provided. Development, deployment and distribution of resources are an important part of planning and implementation.

Let us now return to the three blocks (Block A - The Planner System; Block B - The Planning Objectives; and Block C - The Plan Adoption System) as shown on page 61 and attempt to describe each of the three blocks. Understandably, these descriptions will be general -- situation-specific descriptions will have to be developed by real planners to fit their real-life contexts and settings. Our present descriptions will also be somewhat rudimentary -- our purpose here being merely illustrative. No attempt will be made for being complete or comprehensive.

We will start in the middle, with Block B - The Planning Objectives.

Describing the planning objectives (Block B)

We will attempt to describe some typical and general objectives of a literacy campaign, program or project. In real-life planning situations, planners will have to develop detailed specific objectives -- educational, economic, political, social and cultural. They will need to validate their lists of general and specific objectives through needs assessment.

To accommodate the dialectics of the planning process, we need to be reminded that planning objectives once stated do not become sacred and good for all times. They are not final, but are only "final enough" for us to be able to start the planning process.

The objectives of a hypothetical literacy campaign, program or project may be stated as follows:

B.1 To make all illiterate youth and adults, literate at the earliest possible time.

B.1.1 Through a process of affirmative action, to provide special literacy programs for women and to other disadvantaged groups.

B.2 To link literacy work with existing development services, so that literacy becomes immediately and directly functional; and, on the other hand, economic and social returns on extension and development services are improved.

B.2.1 Through a process of re-socialization, to have adults accept new ideas, attitudes and ways of doing things.

B.3 To help adults and youth to break away from the obsessive motivational connection between literacy and a salaried job; and to enable learners to understand that literacy is for putting into action, immediately, in their economic activities to improve productivity, and in their daily lives to improve the quality of life.

B.3.1 To provide multiple entry points in the formal education system for those youth who want to return to school to pursue formal education, and for those adults interested in continuing education.

B.4 To develop a system for the planning, delivery and implementation of literacy services so that supervisors and teachers can be trained; literacy and post-literacy materials can be produced and distributed; learners can be recruited; communities can be mobilized; and the outcomes of the literacy campaign, program or project can be evaluated.

Let us be reminded that in a real-life planning situation, with its own special context and setting, these general objectives will have to be converted into many specific objectives, and will have to be made much more concrete -- perhaps quantified.

Describing the planner system (Block A)

The planner system, as we have suggested earlier, should be described in terms of CLER -- the configurations involved and their mutual relationships (C); the linkages (L); the environment (E); and the resources (R).

The CLER-description of a hypothetical planner system may look like the following:

A.1 Configurations

- A.1.1 Individuals. The President of the country is most interested in the literacy program.
- A.1.2 Groups. No special interest groups exist.
- A.1.3 Institutions. Many different governmental and non-governmental institutions are involved:
  - (a) The Department of Nonformal Education of the Ministry of Education as the primary agency
  - (b) All Extension Departments of the Government, especially the Ministries of Agriculture and Health.
  - (c) The National Voluntary Students Service
  - (d) The National Christian Council/Other religious organizations
  - (e) Prisons and rehabilitation centers
  - (f) Formal education institutions.
- A.1.4 Sub-cultures or communities. Not relevant.

A.2 Linkages

- A.2.1 Informal linkages. Will identify and describe later during implementation.
- A.2.2 Formal linkages. Exist within all government institutions but are not operational. No formal

linkages exist between the government and private associations such as the National Christian Council.

A.3 Environment

At the center the environment is supportive of the literacy effort. As we move away from the capital and into the country, the environment is inhibitive. Workers in the localities are themselves unconvinced of the usefulness of literacy.

A.4 Resources

A.4.1 Conceptual resources. Conceptual resources of the planner system are less than satisfactory. Need outside technical inputs.

A.4.2 Influence resources. At the national level the President's interest can be used as an influence resource. In the localities, the influence of local leaders will need to be mobilized.

A.4.3 Material resources. Sufficient.

A.4.4 Personnel resource. Not sufficient. Too few program people for the size and scope of the literacy effort involved.

A.4.5 Institutional resources. Institutional and infrastructural resources quite limited.

A.4.6 Time resources. The time-frame of five years established for the literacy campaign is perhaps optimistic.

The listing, once again, is general and will have to be made much more specific and concrete in real-life planning situations.

It is important to remember that a planner system will have various levels -- from the center, through the districts, to divisions and localities. The same model can be used to develop CLER descriptions at all these various levels through a process of iteration.

Describing the plan adoption system (Block C)

The plan adoption system can also be described in terms of CLER -- the configurations involved and their mutual relationships (C); the linkages (L); the environment (E); and the resources (R).

The same model can be used to develop descriptions at the national, regional and community levels.

The CLER-description of a hypothetical plan adoption system may look like the following:

C.1 Configurations

C.1.1 Individuals. Individual illiterates -- adult males, adult females, children of school-age not attending school. Popular leaders -- local, regional and national -- who support literacy.

C.1.2 Groups. Families. Peer groups. Age-sets and other mutual-support groups in the communities.

C.1.3 Institutions. Formal and secular institutions such as development extension departments, the cooperative, the bank, and the primary school. These play the dual role of the planner and the plan adoption systems.

Religious institutions such as the church. Indigenous institutions such as the traditional court and the village assembly of the elders or of the chief.

C.1.4 Sub-cultures and communities. The rural versus urban communities. Nomadic sub-cultures. Special ethnic minorities.

C.2 Linkages

C.2.1 Informal linkages. Must be identified and described during implementation.

C.2.2 Formal linkages. Development extension committees at the local, distinct and regional levels.

C.3 Environment. Differs from the rural to the urban, and from community to community. The quality of the overall environment may even be considered inhibitive since uses of literacy are not always clear to prospective learners.

C.4 Resources. Availability of resources will again differ from the rural to the urban; and from community to community. Typically, rural communities will lack the whole range of resources -- conceptual, material, personnel and institutional. Only influence and time resources may be manipulable.

Inventing planning solutions: What to do?

In the three sections immediately preceding, we have described the planning objectives (Block B), the planner system (Block A) and the plan adoption system (Block C). Now we have to put Block A, Block B and

Block C in dialectical relationships with each other and to think of things to do to achieve our planning objectives (in their stated form or in a slightly revised form, if necessary.)

How do we think of things to do? Unfortunately, there is no formula that can be given. All one can tell the planner is to be a creative problem-solver, to learn from the experiences of others in other places, and yet invent solutions unique to the planner's own situation.

Once again, it will be helpful to think with the categories of the CLER model. Now, the question to ask is: Knowing what the planning objectives are; and knowing what the descriptions of the planner system and the plan adoption system are, what should one plan to do in terms of CLER to make the achievement of planning objectives possible?

Here are some examples of "things to do" that suggest themselves to us:

C (Configurations)

1. Plan to develop special programs (and special delivery mechanisms) for urban groups, women, and nomadic groups; and in developing these delivery mechanisms use traditional groups and indigenous institutions to motivate, to recruit and to teach learners. (B.1.1, C.1.2, C.1.3)

2. Plan not to do all literacy work in one department and under one roof. The primary Literacy Department may do only part of the total literacy work but may coordinate the overall national effort. In other words, all extension departments should be encouraged to have their own literacy programs, integrated with their extension work. The national voluntary student service should similarly plan to conduct their own literacy effort, based on a clearly understood division of labor among

various institutions concerned. All literacy materials may yet be produced by one curriculum development and production unit, and related training and evaluation efforts must be harmonized. (A.1.3, B.2, B.4)

3. Plan to establish a fully-functional and operational coordination mechanism that horizontally covers all institutional interests; and vertically integrates the center, with the regions and the local communities. (A.1.3, B.2)

4. Plan to establish a mechanism to develop and operate links between literacy and formal schooling. (A.1.3(f), B.3.1)

5. Plan to establish mechanisms whereby adults can be re-socialized into new ways of thinking, valuing and working. (B.2.1, C.1.2, C.1.3)

6. Plan to establish a suitable literacy organization which can do all of the above (1 to 5); and also perform curriculum development, training, research and evaluation functions. (A.4.1, A.4.4, B.4)

L (Linkages)

7. Plan to establish a variety of ad hoc groups and literacy committees to promote formal and informal linkages between and among various actors and at various levels. (A.2.1, A.2.2, B.2, C.2.1, C.2.2)

E (Environment)

8. Plan to create an environment where literacy is valued for use in daily life and work and the obsession for salaried work is neutralized. (A.1.1, A.3, A.4.2, B.3, C.3)

R (Resources)

9. Plan for the continuity of resources for the planner system. Do not expect too many of resources to be generated locally from the people

who are already poor. Emphasize development of institutional resources among the plan adoption system. (A.4, B.4, C.4)

The list of "things to do" given above is by no means complete. Nor is it too concrete and operational. But it is the first important step in providing "substance" to the planning exercise. Through further discussion and deliberation, the list will have to go through many revisions until an overall, coherent planning strategy emerges and a list of concrete planning activities can be made.

Inventing planning actions: How to do?

The process of dialectical thinking (using Blocks A, B and C) described above must be recycled, if necessary, more than once. The first cycle will generate ideas about "what to do?" The second and third cycles must generate ideas about "how to do?" That is, we must invent operational plans, not merely general planning agendas.

These operational plans may look like the following:

1. Establish five writers workshops to write five different functional literacy primers on the subjects of cotton farming, cattle-raising, vegetable gardening, nutrition and childcare and income generation activities for women.
2. Using a multiplier model, train 30 trainers of trainers, 300 trainers, and 36,000 literacy teachers during a six month period.
3. Produce and distribute one million copies of a catechism on literacy (a short, easy to read, manual on the principles of literacy in the form of questions and answers) for use by literacy workers at all levels, to answer questions and criticisms of literacy work.

4. Produce, in two months, a set of forms to meet the minimum requirements for record-keeping within the program.

Once again, the list is by no means comprehensive, but is meant to provide a flavor of the kinds of concrete planning actions that must be implemented.

Fitting planned activities into a functional-temporal sequence

Developing a list of "things to do" is not enough. To intervene in the real world, the various activities must be organized to fit into a functional-temporal sequence. The planning actions listed above will now have to be sequenced and scheduled and quantified as far as possible. Plans of operations will have to be made and budgets will have to be developed.

As we have indicated earlier, our lists of "things to do" are incomplete. To show how a functional-temporal sequence may look like, we have reproduced below a general model for the planning and implementation of literacy campaigns.[1]

To summarize this section, we have suggested that planners look at the planning objectives, the planner system and the plan adoption system in their dialectical relationships. General objectives should be translated into specific objectives. The planner system and the plan adoption system should both be described in CLER terms. From description, we should then go to invention. Looking at the planning objectives, the planner system and

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[1] H. S. Bhola, Campaigning for Literacy. Unesco Surveys and Studies. ED 82/WS/67. Paris, May 1982.

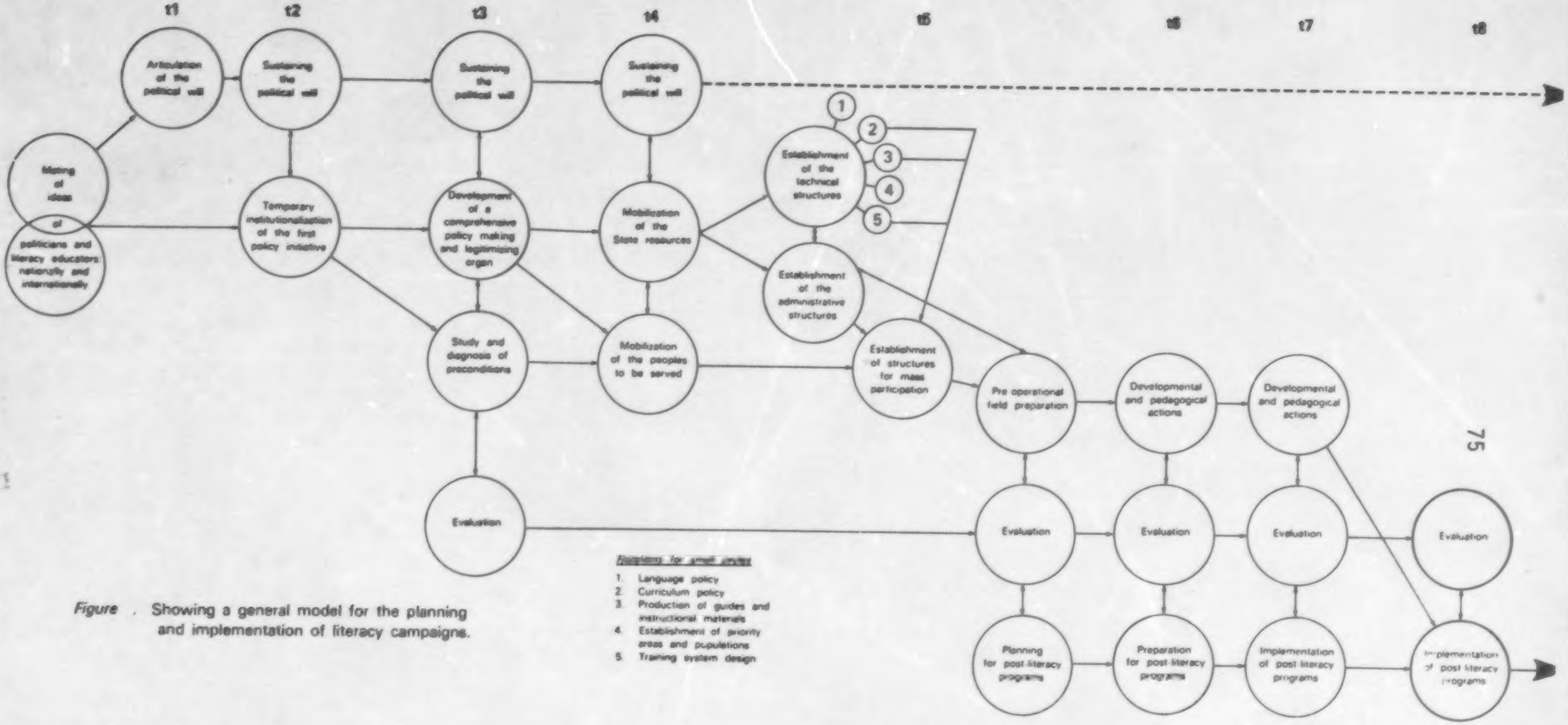
t1
t2
t3
t4
t5
t6
t7
t8
Mating of ideas of politicians and literacy educators nationally and internationally
Articulation of the political will
Sustaining the political will
Sustaining the political will
Sustaining the political will
Temporary institutionalization of the first policy initiative
Development of a comprehensive policy making and legitimizing organ
Mobilization of the State resources
Establishment of the technical structures
1
2
3
4
5
Establishment of the administrative structures
Study and diagnosis of preconditions
Mobilization of the peoples to be served
Establishment of structures for mass participation
Pre operational field preparation
Developmental and pedagogical actions
Developmental and pedagogical actions
Evaluation
Evaluation
Evaluation
Evaluation
Evaluation
Planning for post-literacy programs
Preparation for post-literacy programs
Implementation of post literacy programs
Implementation of post literacy programs
Notations for small circles
1. Language policy
2. Curriculum policy
3. Production of guides and instructional materials
4. Establishment of priority areas and populations
5. Training system design

Figure . Showing a general model for the planning and implementation of literacy campaigns.

the plan adoption system in togetherness, we should ask: What actions, activities and tasks must be performed to accomplish the various planning objectives? Here again, it was suggested, that the CLER model should help. What to do about configurations and configurational relationships? What to do about linkages? What to do about environment? What to do about resources? The list of planning actions so generated should be sequenced and scheduled for operational purposes. As far as possible, targets should be set and inputs and outputs should be quantified.

Section D

Special issues in planning

There are a few important issues that keep on surfacing in all discussions of planning that deserve a brief comment here.

Planning for quality

Planners too often get lost in numbers and fail to address the qualitative aspects of their planning objectives. It is not enough to open literacy classes in every village and factory in the country. It is important that the instructional materials provided to learners are first-rate, teachers are effectively trained, and the teaching-learning process contributes to the growth and independence of learners.

Integrated rural development planning

Integrated rural development makes sense. Lives of farmers are lived as complete undivided wholes. The daily existence of rural communities is not segmented to fit the division of ministries and departments of governments. Unfortunately, integrated rural development is much more often discussed than practiced. To implement integrated rural development, there will have to be integrated planning, followed by integrated delivery. Most importantly, the farmer will have to receive an integrated whole of inputs, extension and education. We do not seem to have learned how to do it all.

Top-down versus bottom-up planning and participative planning

There is considerable sentiment around today that favors bottom-up planning in which the people participate. However, it has been seldom possible to practice authentic, participative, bottom-up planning. There are various factors that inhibit.

We fail to recognize the fact that local communities are often factionalized, wherein the powerful tyrannize over the powerless. Whose participation should we invite in such communities in the process of bottom-up participative planning? Even when communities have shared goals and interests, local leaders are not trained for participatory planning.

Also, there is something inherent in the concept of the nation state that runs against the ideal of bottom-up planning, following local visions and local interests. No wonder most participatory planning ends up being nominal or at best consultative, but is seldom, if ever, authentic and responsible.

The Chinese concept of democratic centralism seems like a useful compromise. The national vision is established centrally, but implementation is left to the communities. In India, there is a division of labor in the planning process. Minor irrigation schemes, village industries, adult and elementary education is locally planned. Industrial estates, regional road systems, hospitals and secondary education are planned at the next higher level. General development strategy, dams, highways, technology development, manufacturing and universities are planned centrally.

It should be pointed out to the reader that "planning for quality," "integrated rural development planning" and "bottom-up, participative planning" are all possible through the use of the CLER model, presented earlier as a general model of planning for implementation.

CHAPTER III

UNDERSTANDING ORGANIZATIONS: DESIGN, RENEWAL AND CHANGE

The graphic "Planning and Organization in the Context of Development" included in Chapter I on page 32, shows both planning and organization at the same level, and as interacting with each other. The message that the graphic seeks to communicate is that planning and organization go together; and that the two are often difficult to separate during the process of implementation. Organizations engage in planning as they conduct their daily business. More importantly, planning often involves organizing: new organizations are designed and established; existing organizations are assigned new functions; and different organizations are combined or at least coordinated into interorganizational networks. Later discussion in Chapter II, Section C, should have provided further demonstration of the fact that planning solutions do often involve organizational solutions.

A planner to play the role of the organizer must have sufficient knowledge of organizations: how they come about; how they pretend to be rational and systematic; and what they end up being as living systems? The planner must understand organizations to be able to design, renew, change and coordinate them. It is, of course, not possible to deal comprehensively with organizations in one short chapter of this monograph. We simply seek here to provide some introductory lessons on "organizational literacy"[1] on which the planner can build, as he or she learns more about organizations.

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[1] The same subject was discussed some years ago by the author in H. S. Bhola, Some introductory lessons on "organizational literacy" for

How much do we all know about organizations already?

We are surrounded by organizations -- supermarket, bottleshop, post office, bank, cooperative, church, school, factory, police post, and some others besides. We deal with organizations every day, all our lives. Many of us work within them to earn our living.

All of us who deal with organizations have, through experience, developed some tacit, unstated knowledge of organizations. Those of us who work within organizations have quite a bit of intuitive knowledge about the workings of organizations, not only to survive within them but to get out of them what we want. We learn how to butter the boss; and to get the vacation leave, or the salary increment, we wanted to have. We learn how to schedule our work to suit our personal moods and circumstances. We learn how to look busy and do nothing -- for hours, for days, for months! We learn the fine art of "filemanship" to ensure that we are always right and never held responsible for anything that goes wrong. We even have "folk-rules" of organizational behavior: Never walk in front of the boss, or behind a horse, for you will get kicked in both cases. (An Indian saying.) Or, when in charge ponder; when in trouble, delegate; and when in doubt mumble! (James Boren -- a satirist of bureaucratic behavior).

We get by! Life goes on! Organizations do function -- at some level of efficiency. Some things do get done -- sooner or later, more or less effectively. However, as planners we want to do better -- in fact, the very best. We want to know what is the best to do and how best to do

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functional literacy workers. The Design of Educational Programmes for the Promotion of Rural Women. (Report of an International Seminar held in Tehran, Iran, April 19-24, 1975), 1975, pp. 109-136. The present chapter, while indebted to the 1975 paper, is a fresh conceptualization of the topic involving extensive reformulation.

it. We want to be rational, knowledgeable and creative at the same time.

Section A

In the following, we will discuss organizations first as rational systems, and then as living systems. A model will be presented that accommodates both of these realities. In a later section, we will discuss some of the things a planner could do to make organizations more responsive to our development needs and more effective and efficient in the performance of development tasks assigned to them.

Half the truth: Organizations as rational and systematic

Max Weber (whose works were translated from German into English in 1947), presented an ideal form of organization which he called bureaucracy. An ideal type organization as conceptualized by him was totally rational and systematic. It had clear goals; well designed roles; role incumbents were contracted on the basis of competence; work was organized in a hierarchy, based on clearly understood rules and procedures; and everyone acted objectively in pursuance of organizational goals.

Six key elements of Weber's classical organizational theory can be stated as follows:

1. A hierarchical organizational structure wherein authority and communication are systematically ordered among formally established positions.
2. Division of labor among roles defined in terms of functional specialization.
3. A system of rules, regulations and procedures covering all rights and duties, of all role incumbents, in all work situations.

4. Impersonality of interpersonal relations.
5. Promotion and selection based on technical skills, and
6. Goal-oriented, systematic and rational decision-making processes.

We all know, of course, that ideal-type organizations as conceptualized above do not exist. This is what we want organizations to be but this they never really are. The rational and systematic organization is a fiction, but a fiction that we strongly believe in. Since truth is something on the basis of which we are ready to act, the organization as a rational system acquires the status at least of half the truth.

The other half of the truth: Organizations as living systems

What we believe about organizations is not what we experience in real organizations that we deal with or work within. Organizations as living systems are neither rational nor systematic in their work.

Organizations hide behind a facade of rationality, but they are neither completely rational nor completely objective. There are indeed limits to human rationality -- rationality requires understanding of cause-and-effect relationships, needs information, and time and resources. Typical administrators neither understand societal processes nor their own behavior within organizations. They gather wrong information, from wrong sources, at the wrong organizational level, for wrong uses. Administrators caught in multiple causalities, think in circles. They act first and rationalize later. They are neither objective nor impersonal. They respond to political realities and their subjective values. And there is never time to think through things. No wonder, administrators have been advised by Herbert Simon to do their best within a "bounded rationality", and to produce "satisficing" decisions rather than to try to produce fully satisfactory decisions.

Organizations are unable to be *systematic* in their work. Organizations have often been found to be in such disorder that they have been called "organized anarchies." First, there is the problem of goals. Many organizations will have problems producing a clear set of their goals. Even if goal statements exist on paper, they get displaced in action. Goal displacement is not a rare phenomenon at all. Most workers within organizations are indeed unaware of the goals they are supposed systematically to achieve. Indeed, individuals within organizations pursue personal goals rather than organizational goals. Being systematic would mean looking at the total picture and to make clear preferences among choices. This is not so in real living organizations which are "incremental" in their actions, as they respond to specific situations and political contexts. Evaluation of actions is rare. Thus, there is little systematic about everyday organizational life. And, there is more!

Real organizations do not do well either in *role* design or in recruiting employees to perform those roles. Job descriptions do not exist or are hopelessly overlapping. Employees are contracted on basis other than that of competence. Functional specialization is confused with diplomas. Nepotism wins over neutral and objective criteria for selection. Once aboard, employees design and develop their own roles and levels of performance. Some even refuse to participate within the organization and manage to be left alone.

The same is true about the *rules* of the organization. Rules are meant to establish a hierarchy of authority and communication. This does not happen. Organizations are "loosely coupled" systems and end up being many organizations in one. Organizations are "heterarchic" rather than hierarchic. Authority and responsibility are almost never congruous. Subordinates often control superordinates. Organizational life seems to be governed by "mutual constraints" rather than by "order and compliance." Written rules are not always clear, are situationally interpreted and do not cover all situations. Communication within organizations is distorted, slow and discontinuous at the same time.

A model of organizations

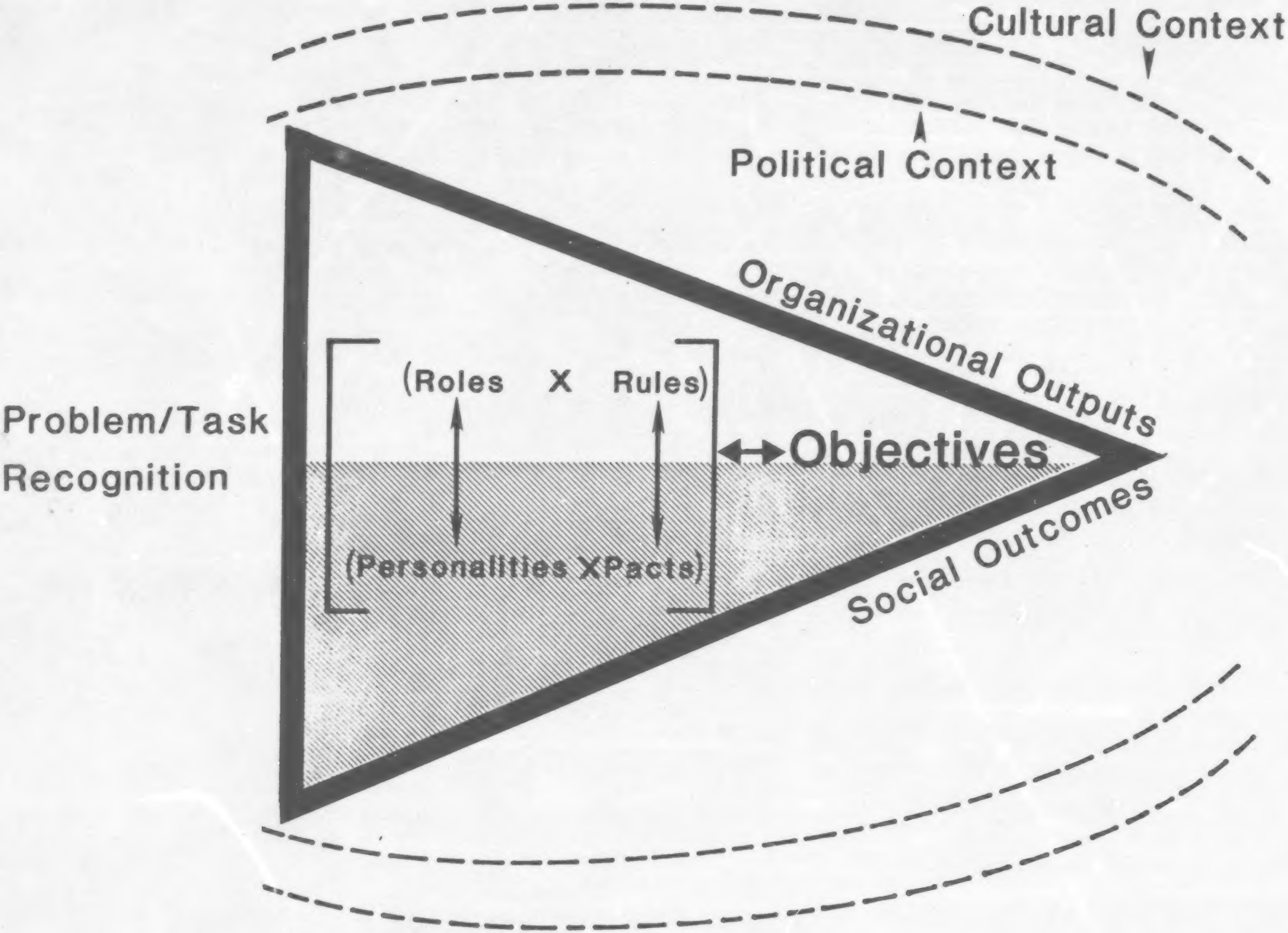
The model of organizations placed on the following page suggests a way of looking at organizations.

The organization is a useful human invention. When a task is beyond the capacity of a mere individual, individuals must come together to form a collectivity, thereby multiplying individual power. If the task in view needs to be done systematically, and with an expectation of continuity, an organization has to be created with appropriate division and coordination of labor.

Organizations are often defined as pyramids, but it may add to our understanding somewhat if we look at them as arrowheads -- which is not to suggest that they always hit the mark! The arrowhead organizational mechanism seems to be the only one we have been able to invent to act collectively for handling big jobs.

Organizations come into being when some economic, social, political, educational or cultural tasks need to be done systematically and with an expectation of continuity. Thereby, organizations always come to acquire some sense of objectives. Organizations seek to produce organizational

Two Layers of an Organization



Cultural Context

Political Context

Organizational Outputs

Problem/Task Recognition

(Roles X Rules)

↔ Objectives

(Personalities X Pacts)

Social Outcomes

outputs (trained teachers, literacy primers or radio broadcasts) which are supposed to produce social outcomes (better quality of life, higher productivity or social justice).

The essential organization consists of a set of roles, and rules for relating those roles into a system of coordinated action. However, people who are recruited to perform various roles, bring with them the "excess baggage" of their personalities. The logical becomes sociological. Once aboard, role incumbents as persons do not always play by the rules, but indeed bend organizational rules to suit their purposes. They make individual pacts with other members working above, below and besides them in the organization. The logic of "roles and rules" becomes sociologically confused and confounded by "personalities and pacts." The organization becomes a living system!

As a result, organizational goals get displaced. Objectives are often stated to rationalize actions already taken. Outputs are produced without relationship with outcomes. All this happens in the political and cultural context that surrounds the organization. Role designs possible within one culture simply can not be transferred to another culture. Rules are after all normative and can not be made universal. Personalities are cultural products; and what kinds of pacts are made, by whom, within organizations, will depend again upon the surrounding political, economic, ethnic and cultural realities.

Section B

Organizational design and change

Knowing what we do know about organizations and organizational behavior, what can we do as organizers of literacy campaigns, programs and projects to make organizations to best serve our purposes? This is a question that must be faced.

Clearly, as professional planners and organizers, we have no choice but to be idealists. We have to subscribe to the values of rationality, objectivity and systematic invention of organizational solutions. However, in seeking to do so, we must not close our eyes to the realities of organizations as living systems. We must not be blinded by theory; rather we must expand our theories to cope with the realities. That means that in planning organizational change, we must deal with both the layers of the organization ("roles and rules" and "personalities and pacts"); and then design the most effective interventions possible for organizational change. As a general principle, the logical must be articulated, strengthened and serviced; and the sociological must never be forgotten.

What can be done? And how? It might be best to begin by saying that as organizers and administrators, we can not play God. On the other hand, understanding is always more likely to lead to more sensible actions on the part of the planner and organizer. It is in this frame of mind that the following comments are made.

Let us begin with a definition of organization according to our model.[1] An organization may be seen as a set of roles, with rules for relating those roles in a functioning collectivity, acquiring and using resources, to fulfill its obligations to the social environment which gave it birth and resources. To change an organization may then involve intervention in one or all of the four variables: Roles (and related role configurations); Rules (both formalized linkages and informal communications and conventions); Environment (with its particular demands on goals, objectives and outputs); and Resources available to the organization for consumption as well as for investment.

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[1] The arrowhead model showing "Two layers of an organization" and included on page 85 of this chapter, can be translated into the CLER model presented earlier as a "planning for change" model in Chapter II. The CLER model being a general model of planning for change can, of course, also be used for making organizational change.

In the following, we will deal with each of these four levers of change in turn.

1. The dynamics of organizational goals and purposes

Obligation to the environment is the raison d'etre of an organization. It is indeed absurd to think of a purposeless organization; but the relationship between objectives and actions within organizations is not always clear and direct. While organizations have manifest goals, they also come to have latent goals. Over time, the initial organizational goals may even get displaced. Goal displacement is the process by which organizations (as well as individuals and groups) lose sight of their original goals, and have them displaced by goals that are different, and even antithetical to their original purposes.

The logic of organizational goal definition

As we have indicated earlier organizations are created to make implementation of policies and plans possible. But human beings cannot always make the right policy diagnoses nor can they always make planning prescriptions that follow logically from their diagnoses. It is possible that creating a new organization was not part of the solution of a policy problem, or may be a wrong type of organization was brought into being in which literacy organizers are now trapped.

It can also happen that organizations are created not to fulfill any specific policy directions, but to carry forward some very general policy themes, such as: preparing the weaker sections of the society to participate in socioeconomic life of the country; or to prepare citizens for life in a classless and just society. Not only does it become difficult for an organizer, in such cases, to logically translate policy into plans and programs of action, but such generalized themes overlap with the mandates given to other institutions in the society. This creates conflicts with existing organizations that claim the same jurisdiction. The need to coordinate and integrate work among different organizations thus becomes of utmost importance. The literacy organizer would face special problems in this regard because literacy often has comprehensive socioeconomic and educational goals.

Sociological confounding of organizational goals

Problems with regard to defining and understanding organizational goals and purposes are not all a matter of being logical or illogical; they also get sociologically confounded.

Organizations may merely serve symbolic uses and may be unable completely to fulfill the ostensible purposes assigned to them. Creation of a National Board of Literacy or a Committee on Total Eradication of Illiteracy may in some cases serve no more than symbolic functions.

Organizations may have latent functions different from those manifestly stated. A church project may be interested in literacy because it provides a setting and stage for continuous contact with people for evangelism and proselytization. A group of people may develop a literacy program not because of their interest in literacy but as a way of building a political base for themselves in the region. A literacy program may also be created by a government simply to give a false sense of movement -- not to provide development but to practice what has been characterized as gradualism. (Gradualism is a word used to denote political strategies whereby, instead of meeting the social and political aspirations of the people honestly and forthrightly, they are put on a slow calendar of gradual progress.) Instead of passing egalitarian economic legislation to benefit underprivileged classes, they may be given more seats in elementary and secondary schools. Such gradualism is not uncommon.

Finally, organizations over time may go through goal displacement without realizing the drift in their essential purposes. An organization, set up to promote traditional media nationally, may become a local production center putting up folklore shows every evening. A national institute of audio visual education for a country may become an agency that produces charts and leaflets for the administrators of the ministry in charge. A literacy institution set up to serve illiterates in the local areas may lose all touch with the communities, and may become a publisher and distributors of books for new literates.

What can a literacy organizer do?

Literacy organizers as we indicated before can not play God. They can not control everything. They can not insist on clarities of goals and specificity of policy directions from presidents and cabinet ministers; and on certainties of actions and consequences in an uncertain world.

Yet, understanding is a prerequisite for doing the possible. By understanding the relationship between policy and organization, and by understanding the dynamics of systems of action, one can do somethings. Organizers can, for example, undertake occasional analyses of their goals and purposes. The most important thing that the literacy organizers can do, however, is to establish operational goals for the organization and have clear and achievable targets. These targets should be translated into regional and local targets and, if possible, into individual norms of accomplishment for all those working within an organization.

But establishing goals, targets and individual norms is not enough. These must arise from a shared commitment and must be communicated all across the organization once they have been finalized.

2. Inventing roles for organizations

Some roles were invented in our cultures and societies so long ago that they have become conventional roles. Everybody knows what the incumbents of those roles do, and how they behave. There have grown around these roles, sets of mutual expectations that are almost universal. Policeman, postman, teacher, soldier are some such roles. They come as if ready-made.

However, different organizations and different cultures have yet to create adaptations of the stereotypical roles we just mentioned. Literacy workers especially have to invent roles afresh since they are often dealing with different sociocultural realities and different pools of personnel resources. The conceptual background of their actions differ also from one literacy campaign (program or project) to another.

The logical in the process of role invention

The technical aspect of the role invention job typically must start with objectives to be fulfilled by a literacy campaign, program or project. It must then be determined as to what tasks or activities must be performed to fulfill those objectives. Next, it must be ascertained as to what tasks seem to go together and could be performed as part of single roles by appropriate numbers of role incumbents. (See the Schema below.)

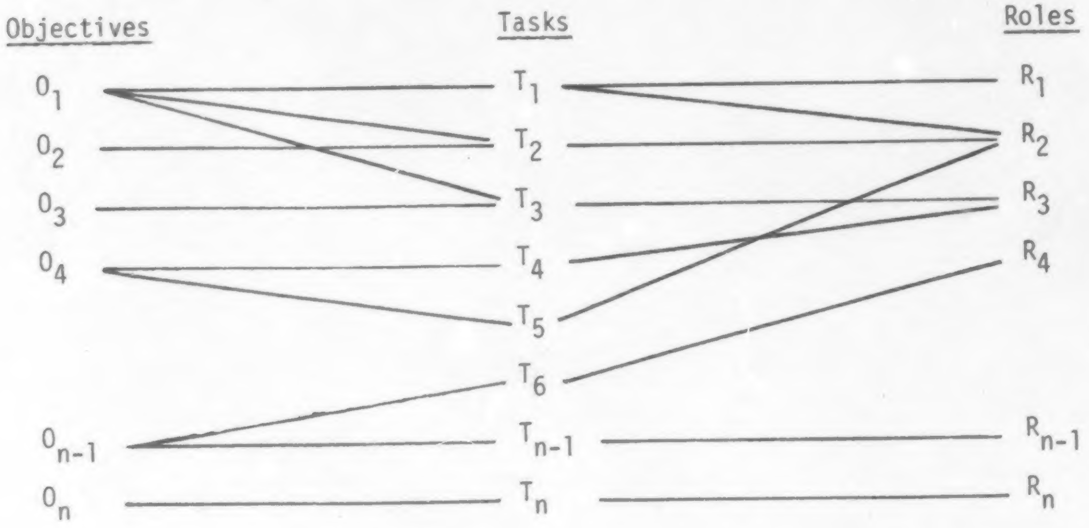

Figure 1. The process of role invention in idealized form.

The process sounds rational and systematic but is full of problems. For example:

1. It is not so easy to state program objectives clearly. Organizations often fulfill latent objectives that they do not want to make manifest. They want such objectives to remain hidden.

1.1 At other times, all the organizational objectives are not anticipated; it is impossible to know the future. By definition, future is unknown.

1.2 Again, objectives may be added to the organization's agenda for political reasons, requiring crude adjustments in role definitions.

1.3 Even where objectives have been agreed upon, different administrators may assign them different values, or may underplay some objectives when translating them into tasks and roles.

2. Translation of objectives into tasks and activities, again, is not as easy as it might seem. This is indeed a theoretical, rather than a logically deductive process. Different theories may provide different answers as to what activities and tasks should be performed to bring "self-reliance" among communities. What tasks should be performed to bring about group cohesiveness, communal harmony, community motivation and action? Even at a less abstract level, what tasks should be performed to make a community literate? To bring women to participate in the life of the community? To ensure that those who become literate actually use literacy in their daily lives to ensure that literacy generates development?

3. Coelescing tasks or activities into roles is not easy or self-evident, either. Experience imaginatively treated will tell us what tasks might go together and which might not. For example, teaching of reading and writing and arithmetic may go together but not, necessarily, teaching literacy and agriculture. The driver and the projectionist roles may be combined but not the driver and the cook. (In a Paris hotel, though, I saw the driver, travel guide, cook and bearer roles combined in one man!) Again, the pool of manpower from which the role incumbents will be recruited may create constraints or freedoms in role invention. In one particular society, it may be possible to combine the teacher, the group discussion leader, and the projectionist roles in one. In another, it may be

impossible to combine the driver and the projectionist roles. In one, the literacy teacher may teach agriculture; in another the agricultural extension worker may teach literacy; in yet another a team teaching approach may be feasible. In some societies, it may be possible to put highly qualified literacy teachers in each adult group; in another only elementary school leavers may be available and the monitor concept may have to be invented. This would make it necessary to package most of the instruction through processes of instructional development so that the monitor roles can be usefully performed.

The sociological aspects of role invention and design

Once roles have been invented, role performers must be found. This presents a set of problems of a very complex nature.

1. In recruitment of role incumbents: (a) we may misjudge people and get the wrong kind of workers; (b) we may deliberately recruit from family and friends and recruitment may become the distribution of patronage, especially so in economies of scarcities; and (c) workers may be foisted on us because they have the right connections in the right places.

2. Once role incumbents are on board, we may find that they are not merely role performers, they are persons. We may find to our chagrin that these role performers have brought with them the "excess baggage" of their personalities! We hired only a part but we got the whole individual, with his or her social status, political connections, habits, temper, and personal objectives.

3. We may find that role performers, perform different tasks components of the assigned role, selectively; or invent a completely different role for

themselves. They may do what they had been doing before, in another organizational setting; may do what they know how to do, not what is required of them that they do; may consider that their sitting at the desk is work, and that they owe no more than that to the organization.

4. There may also occur genuine role conflict. It is perhaps difficult for a supervisor to be both a teacher and an administrator. Most people like to govern rather than to promote growth in other individuals. When a person is expected to play both of these roles, he or she will neglect one to play the other.

What can a literacy organizer do?

Essentially, these are the possibilities:

1. The first thing to do here, again, is to develop understandings. A literacy organizer must understand the dynamics of role design, of mutual role expectations, role performance and of interactions among role incumbents.

2. A literacy organizer must be careful not to borrow ready-made roles from other literacy campaigns, programs or projects from other places. He or she must design roles for the organization afresh to suit local purposes. The roles designed must be appropriate to the conceptual structure of the literacy program. The tasks should be properly clustered and roles must be properly joined. They must also be appropriate to the realities of the society in which those roles will be performed.

3. The literacy organizer must be careful about the recruitment of individuals in the organization. The organizer must not sabotage his or her own plans by recruiting friends, relatives, students, or admirers when they are clearly unprepared for the jobs to be done. Social class, sex and age of field workers must be given due consideration.

4. Once aboard, role incumbents must be enabled to perform their roles. Their jobs must be fully explained to them: job cards and typical daily, weekly and monthly schedules may be provided. Norms for work and conduct should be established. There should be continuous staff development through training and socialization.

4.1 The literacy organizer should not let roles in the organization get frozen or locked in, but should consider them fluid. These roles should be frequently renalayzed. Questions like these should be asked: Are these roles still valid in terms of tasks to be performed? Do any role conflicts exist? Are all role incumbents actually participating? Is role performance satisfactory? Can the individuals assigned to particular roles actually perform those roles? Have field jobs become desk jobs? Is supervision and counselling actually taking place?

5. The preceding should lead to frequent role negotiations between role incumbents. Duties and expectations related to various roles should be changed and reintegrated as often as necessary.

6. Literacy organizers should emphasize interdependencies among roles. Role incumbents in upper levels of the hierarchy should not be permitted to insult or tyrannize over role incumbents at lower levels of the organization. Individuals should be provided channels of growth and advancement and helped in fulfilling socially acceptable personal goals.

7. Literacy organizers must learn to accept the fact that volunteer literacy teachers can not be treated as full-time workers and as subordinate officials integrated within the organization. They must be provided significant non-monetary rewards and not taken for granted and treated badly.

3. Rule making for relating organizational roles

Roles must be related according to some clearly understood rules to create an organization. The sole purpose of making rules for an organization is to distribute power among various role incumbents. An organized "power field" must be created which can then perform societal work. (Indeed, an organization is a power field that can perform societal work." By rule making, individual wills of role incumbents are submerged in an organizational will. The organization can not afford to leave role incumbents to themselves, to assert their power to develop a pecking order anew, every day. Organizational designers distribute power within the organization formally. They ascribe authority to some role incumbents to make decisions on behalf of the organization. In other words, they establish formal chains of command.

The authority to make decisions is accompanied by a parallel communication structure. Different people have different communication rights and communication obligations. To put muscle in this authority structure, higher level role incumbents can punish or reward those below them. The availability of rewards and punishments differs from organization to organization. Army has one set of rewards and punishments it can use. Businesses have another set. Organizations of literacy would have their own set of rewards and punishments. Some of those rewards will be monetary but more of them will be normative.

The basic organizational dilemma arises from the fact that ascribed authority and professional ability do not always go together in individuals. Those who have high authority within an organization do not necessarily have corresponding abilities. Conversely, those who are low in the hierarchy are not necessarily less competent. In today's world of specialization, the problem has acquired another aspect. In most organizations today the specialists suggest alternative decisions, but a generalist, in authority, has the veto over decisions. Again, specialists do the work but the generalist, in authority, rewards performance. That creates problems. Finally, communication does not flow as expected. It is distorted, accidental, discontinuous.

Some logical problems in rule making

There are some basic logical problems about rule making within organizations:

1. First of all is the problem of anticipation. All decision making situations cannot be anticipated so that these could be made subject to rules. In pioneering enterprises, such as literacy and other developmental work, anticipating situations for rule making is very diffucult indeed.

2. Too much rule making stymies those who are made subject to those rules. The impersonality and rigidity of rules goes against both motivation and spontaneity. Yet absence of rules and regulations creates confusion about courses of action for role incumbents within an organization.

3. Rules cannot always be made afresh. Organizations in fact often borrow each other's code books. Unfortunately, too often borrowing is not followed by adaptation to particular situations of different organizations.

4. While rules regarding command can be easily developed, rules regarding cooperation cannot be. No doubt, special coordination roles can be created within organizations and different units can be commanded to communicate with coordinators. But a unit could decide to communicate only

when asked, and communicate only what is specifically required. No wonder feedback systems within organizations have to be often handled informally. They have to depend, not merely on rules, but also on goodwill.

5. Rules must be created in relation to criteria for performance and related rewards. Unfortunately, it is not always possible to make authority congruent with responsibility. Particularly, in development organizations, new concepts of work have to be invented and performance cannot always be judged in terms of products or of impact.

5.1 Even those who work within literacy organizations think that to work is to work on your desk, in your office. They feel guilty about being away in the field, and about being present in their office only infrequently. On the other hand, some would carry things to the other extreme. They would suggest that "armchair thinking and desk planning" is a waste of time. That is certainly not so either. Desk work is necessary. But office work is not all of the work of a literacy worker. Literacy workers are first and foremost field workers.

5.2 As has been suggested above, a literacy worker's performance can not always be judged in terms of products and impact. Development is a complex process. Motivations within communities can not always be created by individual literacy workers. The door to learning and growth opens from the inside. The literacy worker can only knock at it. Literacy workers should, therefore, be judged in terms of their commitment to work and in terms of the application of processes. If a literacy worker did all that was necessary and yet no literacy class materialized, you do not necessarily have a bad literacy worker in the organization.

6. Finally, rules must create career lines for its workers. Within non-governmental agencies the task is comparatively easy. However, within governmental settings where officials become subject to civil service regulations problems would be many.

Sociological complexities of rule making

In rule making, as indeed in most human life, the logical gets confounded with the sociological. Here are some of the sociological problems about rule making:

1. The first problem arises from tensions introduced into the authority structure. Role incumbents bring their personalities with them as they join organizations. They also bring with them their social statuses, their relationships with powerful people and outside groups, and thereby their influence and power. Also some of the role incumbents are very able and competent and develop individual power incommensurate with their official positions. This informal power structure that is not congruent with the authority structure constructed by rules generates tensions within the system. It leads to what has been called bureaupathology and bureausis defined[1] as follows:

Bureaupathology. When a role incumbent in high authority feels that he is really not as competent as some of his subordinates, he or she tries to hide personal insecurities by excessive assertion of authority and status. Such dysfunctional behavior is called bureaupathology.

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[1] By Victor A. Thompson, Modern Organization. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1961.

Bureausis. This is a word that describes the inability of some people to cope with organizations, and their childish tendency to find the rationalism, orderliness, impartiality and impersonality of bureaucracies completely intolerable.

2. In our discussion of roles we pointed out how individual incumbents redefine roles to suit their personal inclinations and capacities. This process throws rule making in disarray. New informal rules develop to support, extend and substitute for formal rules. These informal rules are so important that the organization can come to a stand-still if role incumbents begin to work according to the formal rules.

3. Rule making creates divisions of labor, and organizational mechanisms, such as units, sections, departments and divisions. These mechanisms, however, come to have a life of their own, so much so that they begin to consider coordination with other units as unnecessary nuisance. Information is guarded from those for whom it was created in the first place. Here, again, the informal communication system helps.

4. New informal reward systems also emerge. Not only monetary but status rewards are given. Psychological contracts develop and are honored. These psychological contracts have complex structures relating to individual's needs for security, autonomy, achievement, sense of power and self-actualization.

5. While units and sections and task forces may be logically developed within an organization; unplanned, overlapping informal groups emerge at the same time. These emerge because some people have similar backgrounds, similar interests, share their fears and their sources of power. There is nothing inherently wrong about the emergence of informal groups within

organizations. In good organizational climates, informal groups play a highly positive role. In organizations with bad organizational climates, however, informal groups can become rumor mills and increase the dysfunctionality of the organization.

What can a literacy organizer do?

What can a literacy organizer do about rule making? Some of the remedies are implicit in our discussion above. Others can be suggested:

1. A literacy organizer may be well advised not to create too many hierarchices within the organization.
2. Due attention should be paid to the problem of coordination which needs to be renewed for every separate action on every separate occasion, both outside and within the organization. Rules may be designed so as to allow the creation of temporary systems within the organization such as task forces, work teams and project teams. This would require perhaps that roles are named generically, e.g., Program Specialists rather than Evaluation Specialist, Training Specialist, Field Work Specialists, Extension Specialist, etc. One can have generic role designations and yet develop specializations by naming specialists as Program Specialist (E), Program Specialist (T), Program Specialist (F), etc. But generic labelling would make redefinition of roles and role negotiations easier when necessary.
3. The literacy organizers, again, must not treat rules, once made, as sacred and good for all times. Rules should be considered as fluid and changeable; and should be reviewed for their functionality every now and then.
4. A literacy organizer must frequently take special actions to energize, the informal communication networks within the organization.

There should be large staff meetings which almost everybody attends. There should be newsletters and bulletins. Special Organization Development (OD) techniques may be used for team building.

5. Rules must provide for the promotion of organizational intelligence. A literacy organizer should not overload the system with reports and forms. However, an organization should not be an oral enterprise without a memory. While work proceeds, role performers must generate valid data and this data must be kept in a form in which it can be readily used by every one in the organization for informed decision making. Rules must, that is, require systematic creation and use of valid information within the organization. Information should be obtained sometimes from workers at different levels of the organization directly and outside of the officially established channels. Feedback should also be obtained from the communities sought to be served.

6. A literacy organizer may, usefully, separate the processes of solution invention and implementation of decisions. During the process of solution invention all possible participation should be encouraged. Points of view, information, and personal opinions must be requested. Once the decision is made the implementation process should begin. At the implementation stage compliance should be ensured, unless a formal review of the decision becomes necessary.

7. Finally, the literacy organizer should use rewards of status and shared credit for all workers within the organization.

4. Resources for action

Organizations cannot exist without resources. They must use recources to create other resources and services. Organizations may be seen typically to need six different types of resources:

1. Cognitive/Informational Resources
2. Attitudinal/Goodwill Resources
3. Material Resources
4. Personnel Resources
5. Institutional Resources, and
6. Time Resources

Creation and management of resources

Literacy organizers are habituated to their poverty. Most often they have low budgetary aspirations. They do not ask for much by way of material resources, and they get even less.

Organizers and administrators of all kinds are often unaware of any lack of conceptual resources within their own organizations. They seem to say -- "If we did not know our job, why would we be here?" Sometimes they may be aware of the lack of conceptual resources within the organization but may try to build all conceptual resources within the organization. Conceptual resources available outside the organization through short-term consultants may be completely neglected. Budget procedures may not even permit consultant use. On the other hand, some organizations may have over-abundance of consultant help. Once a certain number of man-months of consultancy has been budgeted, there may be compulsions towards squandering those resources. Goodwill is seldom looked at as a resource by literacy organizers; and they may often learn, to their dismay, that personnel are not always available even when they have money to pay them.

Literacy organizations often may have no institutional support and may find it necessary to build their own infrastructures. At other times, however, they may try to build their own parallel infrastructures and not use what is already available merely for the asking. Finally, time may be badly handled for want of systematic approaches to planning and knowledge of techniques such as Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT).

The human element in resource use

The human element in resource availability and use plays fantastic tricks on planners, and administrators. Too much of material resources can produce a goldrush. Every one may want to have part of the money that is around for himself or herself. In economies of scarcities, organizational equipment and properties may be misused for personal advantage. Official cars, radios, tape recorders may be put to private rather than official use. Interestingly enough, there may be something called the "nationality of money." Money may be differently spent depending upon the sources from which it comes. American money may be different from local money. German money may acquire its own particular nationality and invite special responses from those who spend it.

Finally, organizers in control within organizations seldom try to hire subordinates smarter than themselves. And in developing societies, some seem to think as if there is room only for one reputation in the whole country. They do not realize that there is lot that remains to be done in this world and that there is room for a million initiatives, and a thousand reputations in this world.

What can a literacy organizer do?

Once again, the question must be asked. What can a literacy worker do about the management of resources? Literacy organizers, minimally, must develop a sharpened awareness about the human aspects of resources and must learn to manage them well. They should be careful neither to abuse organizational resources themselves, nor allow the abuse of organizational resources by others. They must also understand that in coordinating efforts with other development institutions, they are actually multiplying their resources; and through community mobilization, they are extending resources as well.

Technology of organizational change

A whole technology has developed for use in planned organizational change: Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT), Management Information Systems (MIS), Organizational Development (OD), measurement of organizational health and organizational capacity, to name just a few techniques. Those interested must refer to the huge variety of sources now available.[1]

Life after success!

What will happen after a literacy organization has succeeded in its mission of eradicating literacy? Will the doors of the organization be closed and all role incumbents asked to go home? Loss of jobs and dislocation of careers is often a concern with literacy workers at the field and supervisory levels.

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[1] Peter Delp and Associates, Systems Tools for Project Planning. Bloomington, IN.: International Development Institute, Indiana University, 1977.

The concerns are reasonable. But there are lots of ifs and buts involved. Literacy, in most countries of the Third World, will remain, for long, an unfinished business. Wastage and stagnation in primary education is high and schools, for years to come, will continue producing more illiterates than literates. The absolute numbers of illiterates have indeed increased in most developing countries even if percentages of illiteracy have dropped. In most places in the developing world, again, literacy work with women--the greater half of humankind--has barely started. Thus literacy organizations are unlikely to become redundant for a long time in the future. But more to the point, organizations for literacy can develop into adult education and community development organizations without serious crises of organizational identity. In today's world of engineering and social technologies, learning societies have become unavoidable. A literacy organizer's work thus will never get done!

Institution building

In this chapter, we have not discussed "institution building" which may be defined as the launching a new organization into the existing network of organizations in a society. Institution building has become a professional specialization in its own right dealing with problems and issues that are particularly its own.[1] Once again, institution building is outside the scope of the present monograph. It may be indicated, however, that many insights developed in our discussion of organizations are transferable to institution building.

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[1] Amy G. Mann (Editor), Institution Building: A Reader. Bloomington, In.: International Development Research Center, Indiana University, 1975.

PART II

CHAPTER IV

A FULLY-FUNCTIONING LITERACY SYSTEM

The essential objective of planning and organizing a literacy campaign, program or project is to establish a fully-functioning literacy system. Such a fully-functioning system may be big or small; may have local coverage or may be national in scope; and may have instructional and administrative structures unique to itself. But it has to be able to serve a variety of general functions: policy clarification and planning; curriculum development and materials production; developing collaborations with technical centers and institutions to obtain professional support for the literacy system; delivery of instruction to learners; providing post-literacy programs and materials; training of functionaries to perform at various levels of the system; and evaluation of the effectiveness of the various functions performed. All these functions will be involved in one way or another, whether we are dealing with a mass literacy campaign, a large-scale literacy program or a small literacy project.

Planning and organization, as we have indicated earlier, can be separated in the mind (that is, analytically), but not in practice. In practice, planning is done within organizations; and planning almost always involves organizational design, coordination and change. In this chapter, and in the chapters to follow, we will always be taking of planning and organization, together.

Planning and organization of literacy campaigns, programs and projects is a complex task. In Chapter III, Section C, we suggested that we put (A) the planner system, (B) the planning objectives and (C) the plan adoption system in a dialectical relationship, to begin the process of inventing (i) what to do and (ii) how to do it. We now suggest that the planning and organization tasks can be made more manageable, if the planning objectives of establishing a literacy system are divided into many sets of sub-objectives. We suggest that the overall literacy system should be divided into literacy subsystems; and, correspondingly, the overall literacy objectives should be divided into sets of sub-objectives to fit each subsystem. See the figure below.

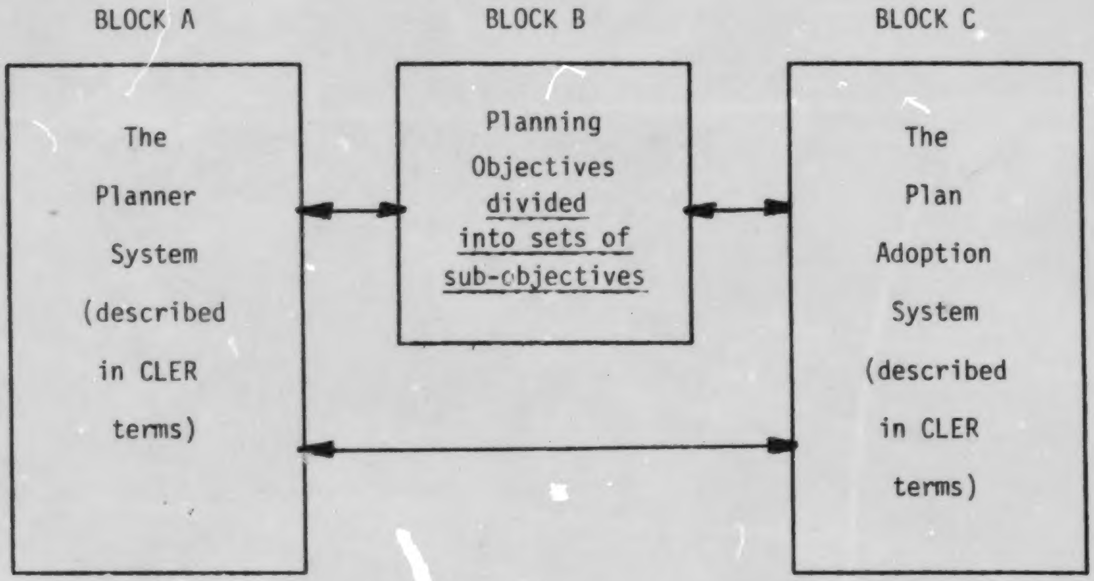

BLOCK A
BLOCK B
BLOCK C
The Planner System (described in CLER terms)
Planning Objectives divided into sets of sub-objectives
The Plan Adoption System (described in CLER terms)

Fig. The ABC/CLER model of planning for implementation.

The overall planning objectives could be divided into sets of sub-objectives according to the following subsystems of the overall literacy system:

1. Policy and planning subsystem
2. Administrative and instructional delivery subsystem
3. Technical support subsystem

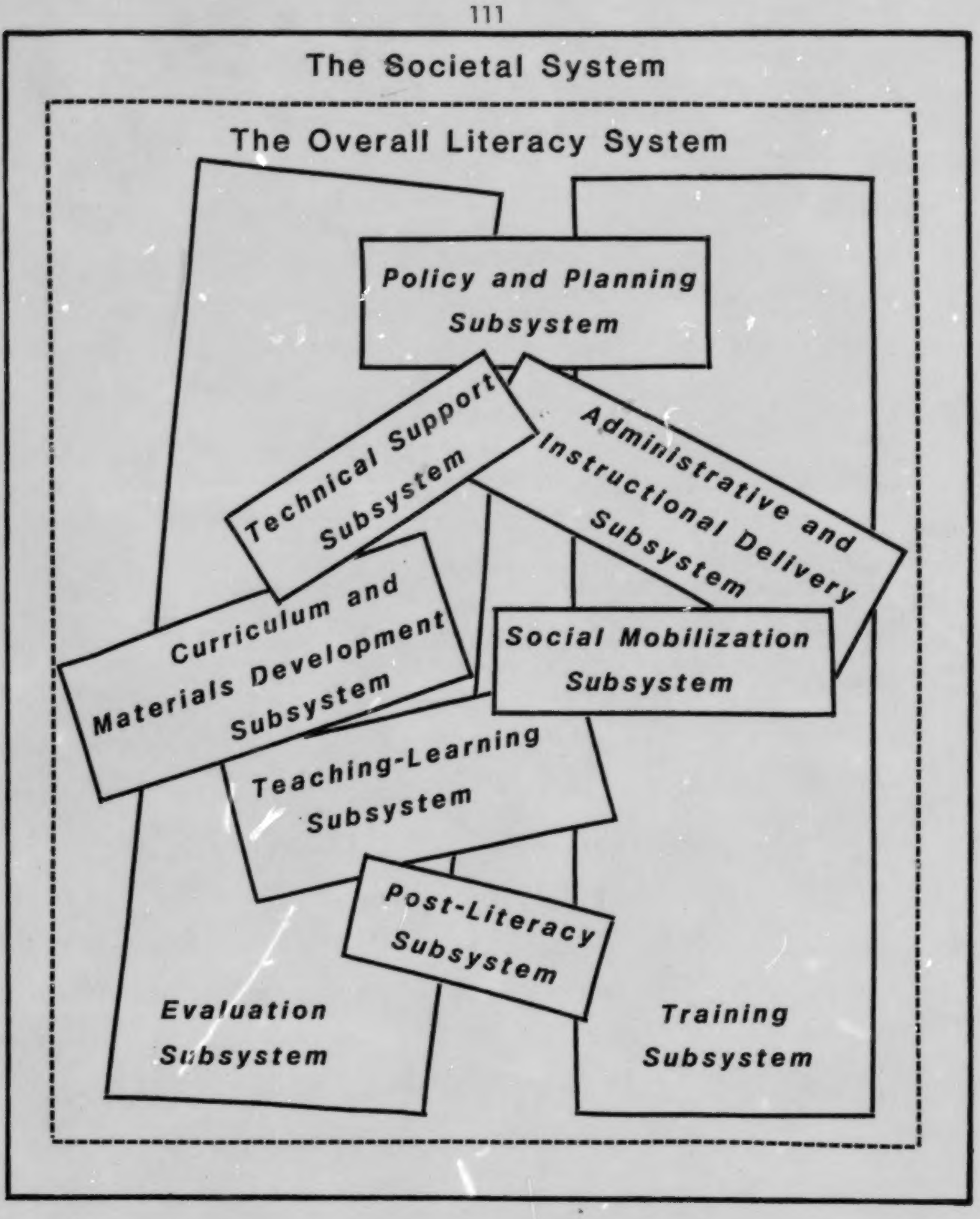
4. Social mobilization subsystem
5. Curriculum and materials development subsystem
6. Teaching-learning subsystem
7. Post-literacy subsystem
8. Training subsystem, and
9. Evaluation subsystem.

The figure on next page shows the various subsystems of an overall literacy system (campaign, program or project) in their mutual interdependence, and in interaction with the society.

A point of caution is in order. Let us understand that within a living literacy system, the various literacy subsystems do not necessarily have to appear as separate sections or units, with their own separate staff of technicians and professional educators. What is crucial is that all these functions are performed, by somebody, under some kind of organizational arrangements. Though, in a large-scale literacy program, it will make sense to have separate units or sections, each provided with sufficient personnel resources.

Policy and planning subsystem. Policy and planning subsystem (or function) will require some policy making but much more policy interpretation and clarification. Of course, plans will have to be made for the implementation of literacy promotion policies, in all the various aspects of curriculum development, training, teaching, organization and evaluation. The policy and planning subsystem will have to function as the nerve center of the overall literacy system.

Administrative and instructional delivery subsystem. Implementation of a literacy campaign, program or project will demand that services actually


The Societal System
The Overall Literacy System
Policy and Planning Subsystem
Technical Support Subsystem
Administrative and Instructional Delivery Subsystem
Curriculum and Materials Development Subsystem
Social Mobilization Subsystem
Teaching-Learning Subsystem
Post-Literacy Subsystem
Evaluation Subsystem
Training Subsystem

The various interdependent subsystems within an overall literacy system--campaign, program or project.

reach those for whom they are intended, that is, adult men and women, and out-of-school youth, in farms and factories. This will mean the establishment of a subsystem (or some suitable organizational arrangement) whereby the function of delivering instruction to learners can be handled and the overall literacy effort can be effectively administered. At the higher levels of the subsystem, it may be possible to separate the administrative function from the instructional function; but at the middle and field levels, administrative and instructional functions may become merged and may be performed by the same one role performer.

Technical support subsystem. The technical support subsystem (or function) will entail the building of a back-up professional support system for the literacy campaign, program or project. A literacy system can not (and need not) try to do everything in and of itself. The professional resources of the society -- universities, teachers colleges, language research centers, specialized research institutes, and bureaus -- must all be used to provide professional services to the literacy initiative.

Social mobilization subsystem. Motivations, we have learned, are not spontaneous. Learners have to be motivated to learn and mobilized to come to learning centers to acquire literacy. Those who are already literate have to be mobilized as monitors, teachers and leaders of discussion forums of various kinds. Communities have to be mobilized to own the literacy initiative; and to both lead and support it with resources.

Curriculum and materials development subsystem. This subsystem (or function) will require that curricular decisions are made in regard to language(s) of literacy, levels of literacy, and the integration of literacy with economic, social and political skills. Objectives regarding attitudinal change will have to be established as well as norms about innovation adoption. Instructional packages may be designed that include folk, print and electronic media. Needs of learners as well as of teachers will have to be covered. Instructional materials -- primers, graded books, teachers guides, posters, leaflets, filmstrips, radio broadcasts, and follow-up reading materials will have to be produced.

Teaching-learning subsystem. The teaching-learning function is at the heart of a literacy enterprise. It must be ensured that the teaching-learning process is dynamic, of the highest possible quality and relevant to the needs of learners. It must be experienced by learners as pleasant and challenging at the same time. This would mean that the teacher and learners are not just left to their own devices. The supervisor must become the teacher's trainer and counsellor; and, at the same time, must act as the learners' link to the world outside their immediate realities. Due attention will have to be paid to the selection of teaching-learning sites and premises, and to the enviroment of learning. Outside instructional resources will have to be properly integrated, so that all learning is not confined to book-learning.

Post-literacy subsystem. The post-literacy subsystem (or function) will require that programs, facilities and materials are provided that enable new literates to continue to read; and to make use of their newly acquired skills in various aspects of their lives. New literates must be taught new aspirations whereby they would want to use their literacy skills; and in the process acquire new identities and new social, economic and political roles.

Training subsystem. The training subsystem (or function) should ensure that role incumbents working within the literacy system are trained to perform the various tasks assigned to them. The technical support subsystem may be employed to conduct some of the needed training for tasks. Other training may have to be designed and provided by the training subsystem itself. Training, orientation and staff development will have to encompass all functions and all levels within the overall literacy system, and some even within systems collaborating with the literacy system.

Evaluation subsystem. The evaluation subsystem (or function) within the overall literacy system is of crucial importance. Evaluation must be built into the overall literacy system to ensure that the experience gained is continuously put to work in the improvement of on-going literacy work in all its aspects. In addition to such formative evaluation, there will be a need for summative evaluation to sum up the effects of a literacy campaign, program or project on individuals and communities.

From parts back to the whole

In the first part of this chapter, we suggested that planning and organization of full-fledged literacy campaigns, programs and projects was a complex task; and that the task could be made manageable by dividing the overall literacy system into nine subsystems. We could then do the planning and organization for each of the subsystem, part by part, thereby making the planning and organizing process much less cumbersome.

Let us remember, however, that misfortune can fall on a system divided! Once a system is conceptualized as made up of many subsystems, the opposite need of coordinating the subsystems back into one whole, organic system arises urgently and immediately. Subsystems by definition, will have boundaries. And system and subsystem boundaries have a way of becoming walls. Workers within subsystems tend to acquire special identities and exclusive "we/they" definitions; and they can become isolated and uncooperative. Effective coordination is, therefore, absolutely necessary.

We do not mean to suggest at all that subsystems work independently of each other, building empires of their own, in isolation from each other. What we do suggest is that each subsystem should take the initiative for the planning and organization of functions assigned to it. Thus, the evaluation subsystem must take the initiative in evaluation planning and in providing professional leadership and technical assistance in the conduct of evaluation; but planning and organization of evaluation must be done together with other subsystems: policy and planning subsystem, administrative and instructional delivery subsystem, curriculum and materials development subsystem, and training subsystem. In the same way, the initiative for the planning and organization of training may come from the training subsystem; but almost every other subsystem must participate in the planning and organization of training, orientation and staff development.

Planning and implementation

We should note the fact that one of the nine subsystems within the overall literacy system discussed above is called "policy and planning subsystem." This does not mean, however, that the other eight subsystems do no planning. As we have suggested above, we expect each subsystem to take the initiative for planning and organization of its particular functions in collaboration with all the other subsystems concerned. In other words, the planning and implementation functions are not separated from each other. Planning and implementation in fact must be kept together within each subsystem.

What then is the special function of the policy and planning subsystem? As was suggested earlier, the policy and planning subsystem will take up the tasks of interpreting overall development policy of the nation and deducing from it consequences for literacy promotion. It will handle planning and organizational issues dealing with inter-agency coordination such as might be involved in the use of student volunteers. It will also deal with larger issues of institution-building. Finally, it will deal with all planning and organizational issues at the system level; and those residual issues that somehow do not seem to be of clear and direct concern of any of the subsystems.

The nature of systems and subsystems

In this chapter, we have talked a lot about systems and subsystems. We talked of the overall literacy system and we then talked of nine subsystems into which the overall literacy system could be divided.

A system by definition is an orderly combination or arrangement of parts or elements (facts, concepts or phenomena) adding up to a whole. Some systems may be seen as composed of subsystems, that is, their parts in themselves may be composed of many sub-parts. What we need to keep in mind is that systems do not exist in nature. They are not God-given; and, therefore, their boundaries are not sacred. We define systems to suit our convenience. One man's system may be another man's subsystem. And another writer could have divided out overall literacy system not in nine subsystems as I have done, but maybe in seven or maybe in eleven subsystems. While there is considerable freedom available to the scholar and the planner in the definition of systems and subsystems, the process of bounding systems and subsystems is not completely arbitrary.

Planning as a multi-level process

In Chapter II above, we pointed out that planning problems in any particular sector of planning such as literacy promotion, are not absolute; nor are planning solutions universal. We had pointed out that literacy planning is done within particular historical, political, institutional and cultural contexts and that it has a strong temporal dimension.

The Table below (Table IV.1) should help us think as to how planning problems of mobilization, curriculum development, training and evaluation would change as we go from the national level, through the district level, to the community level. The table is not meant to be complete and exhaustive. We take only a few subsystems (only four out of our possible nine); and we include only a few planning actions in various cells of the table as we go across from the center to the community. The purpose is merely to demonstrate a point: that the planning process remains continuous across administrative levels as the planning task is continuously redefined at each level.

Table IV.1

Continuity and Change in the Planning and Organizational Tasks Across the Various Levels of Literacy Subsystems

The Literacy Subsystem	At the Central Level	At the Provincial/ District Level	At the Community/ Local Level
Social Mobilization	Develop plans for establishing (or associating) mass organizations for mobilization and people's participation.	Organize to identify, recruit and train leaders for the mass organization at the provincial and local levels.	Organize local branches of the mass organization and plan to hold rallies and demonstrations in local communities in behalf of literacy.
	Plan media utilization strategies for creating awareness and sustaining interest of the nation's citizens in literacy.	Plan and organize visits of celebrities to various central locations in the district.	Organize community functions where local traditional leaders can make public statements of their commitment to literacy.
Curriculum and Materials Development	Engage in curricular planning on the basis of selected language(s) of literacy; and levels of expectation about literacy, numeracy and functional knowledge.	Adapt curricular plans to provincial/district needs; and do needs assessments to make choices about functional knowledge in particular.	Plan and organize in-class and out-of-class activities in such a way that curricular objectives can be achieved.
	Plan and organize writers workshops to write and produce reading materials and other curricular materials.	Plan to publish a district level news magazine to complement centrally-produced curriculum materials.	Plan for the writing and use of learner-generated reading materials in as many areas as possible thereby also recording local "oral history."

Training	Conceptualize and plan a training strategy based on an analysis of required roles and numbers of personnel.	Develop a multiplier training model that will produce needed personnel in appropriate numbers, at appropriate times during implementation.	Make a plan for bringing different functionaries in the localities together in mutual assistance groups of peers.
	In cooperation with universities and teachers colleges, plan to train "trainers of trainers."	Plan permanent training centers (or make ad-hoc arrangements) to train the required numbers of literacy teachers and supervisors.	Plan and organize for using supervisory visits as opportunities for professional counseling of teachers.
Evaluation	Plan for a built-in evaluation and for a management information system (MIS), including design of instruments.	Organize for the built-in evaluation and for the MIS, adding, where necessary, items of local interest to the evaluation instruments.	Plan to make changes in work patterns and organization to conduct built-in evaluation and to implement the MIS.
	Plan and organize to write a national report to inform relevant constituencies; and to develop strategies for utilization of evaluation results.	Plan and organize to write provincial/district reports; provide feedback to relevant groups; and to develop strategies for utilization of evaluation results.	Collect data; collate and write community level reports; and provide feedback to learners and community leaders.

Planning is time-sensitive

Planning, as we indicated in Chapter II above, also has a temporal dimension. Planning is time-sensitive. Planning does have continuity along the time dimension as the planner engages in the planning process during the pre-implementation, co-implementation and post-implementation stages of action. But planning perspectives change somewhat along this time dimension as well. Thus, there is both continuity and change in planning across the time dimension.

The table below (Table IV.2) seeks to exemplify this continuity and change. The table is by no means exhaustive. We take only a few subsystems from the overall literacy system; and include only a few planning actions in each cell of the table. The purpose is merely to demonstrate and not to be complete and comprehensive.

Table IV.2

Continuity and Change in the Planning and Organizational Tasks at Various Times in the Life of a Literacy System

The Literacy Subsystem	Pre-Implementation Period	Co-Implementation Period	Post-Implementation Period
Social Mobilization	Planning for the establishment of (or association with) mass organizations for mobilization and people's participation; and organizing for identification, recruitment and training of local leaders for starting local branches.	Planning for the maintenance and functioning of mass organizations through dynamic supervision, establishment of norms and provision of non-economic rewards for animators.	Planning for disengagement from literacy works; and new agenda setting to include post-literacy work and related development work.
Curriculum and Materials Development	Engage in curricular planning on the basis of selected language(s) of literacy and levels of expectation about literacy, numeracy and functional knowledge; organizing writers workshops for writing, testing and producing instructional materials; and distribution of materials in appropriate quantities.	Organizing the distribution of centrally produced materials; production of materials of regional and local relevance; and production, perhaps, of reading materials in a second language other than the language of literacy. (In some cases this language will be English, French or Portuguese.)	Planning strategies for making new literates independent learners and producing materials of general interest on both culture and technology.

Training	Based on a network of functional roles, to plan to fulfill all training needs; designing general training model(s); organizing collaboration with universities for higher level training; and establishment of needed training facilities within the literacy system.	To plan for continued staff development and in-service training; and organizing to use supervisors as professional counsellors.	Planning for the re-training of some staff for post-literacy work; and of other for deployment in related sectors of development.
Evaluation	Plan for a built-in evaluation; organize for the preparation, pre-testing and printing of instruments and forms; and the training of personnel for evaluation.	Plan to conduct the built-in evaluation; to maintain an MIS; and organize for continued data collection and flow within the system.	Plan to report on experiences (both substantive and methodological) to interested constituencies and to redeploy evaluation specialists to other sectors.

In the nine chapters (V-XIII) to follow, we will deal with planning and organization in relation to each of the nine subsystems of literacy listed earlier in this chapter. The same general format will be followed in each chapter. We will recollect each time the ABC/CLER model of planning for implementation. Each time, we will describe the planning and organizational objectives of the subsystem being discussed (Block B). We will then go on to describe the planner system (Block A) and the plan adoption system (Block C) as defined by the objectives of the subsystem. Looking at the three blocks (A, B and C) is a dialectical relationship, we will generate possible planning and organizational solutions in terms of "what should be done" and "how to do what is to be done."

Understandably, our lists of strategic actions in terms of planning and organization will be both idealized and general. We will present idealized lists of what to do and how to do it because our purpose is didactic. We will be general about planning and organizational solutions because specific planning and organizational solutions must arise within particular contexts and must go through the social process of negotiation. You, as a planner, on a real literacy program, in real time and space, will have to generate those specific planning and organizational solutions.

CHAPTER V

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATIONAL TASKS OF THE POLICY AND PLANNING SUBSYSTEM

The "Policy and Planning Subsystem" is first of the nine subsystems into which the overall literacy system has been divided. (See Chapter IV, pages 109-110.) Such a division, we had suggested, will make the process of inventing planning and organizational solutions much more manageable.

Let us remember that in this chapter and in the chapters to follow (Chapters V-XIII), "planning" and "organization" will not be discussed separately. Planning solutions will include organizational solutions. Second, in carving a separate "policy and planning subsystem," we do not mean to imply that all planning will be monopolized by this particular subsystem. Each of the other eight subsystems will engage in planning tasks specific to the particular subsystem. Each will take the initiative for meeting its own special planning needs. The "policy and planning subsystem" discussed in this chapter, will handle policy and planning tasks at the overall system level, tasks which will be unique to itself. Finally, the division of the overall literacy system into nine subsystems must not be allowed to lead to divisiveness and isolation. The specialization of functions among subsystems should proceed within a framework of shared purposes and unity of actions.

As we focus on the "Policy and Planning Subsystem," the general planning model (Chapter II, page 61) assumes the following concrete form:

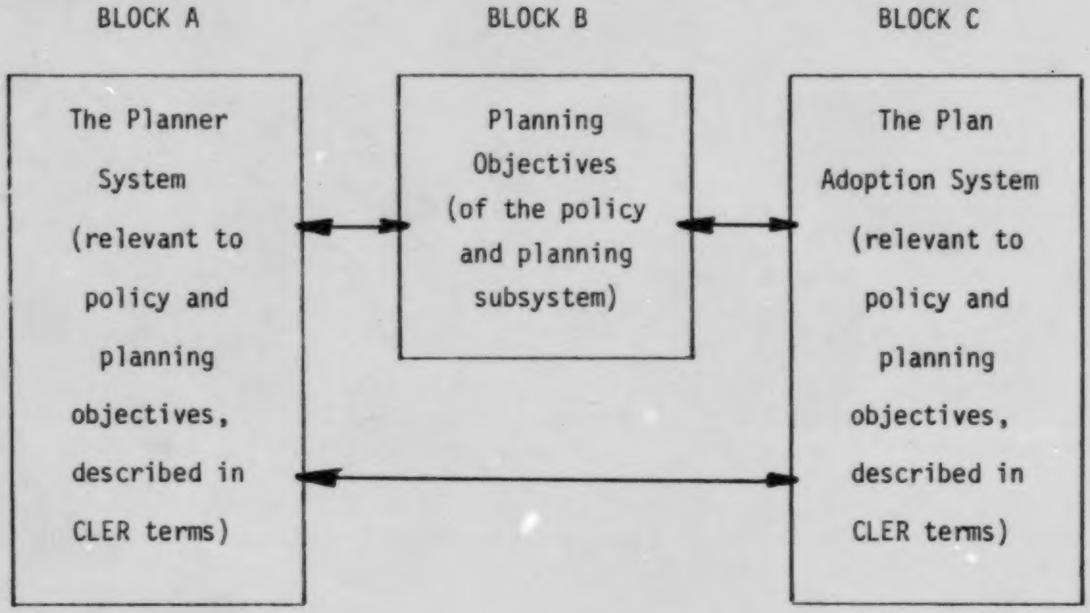

BLOCK A
BLOCK B
BLOCK C
The Planner System (relevant to policy and planning objectives, described in CLER terms)
Planning Objectives (of the policy and planning subsystem)
The Plan Adoption System (relevant to policy and planning objectives, described in CLER terms)

Fig. The ABC/CLER model of planning for implementation.

Objectives of the policy and planning subsystem (Block B)

As we will read in this monograph nine separate lists of planning objectives, one for each of the nine subsystems of the overall literacy system, we will notice some overlap between planning objectives listed for various subsystems. This should not be seen as a breakdown of the planning model. For subsystems to function as integral parts of a whole, there has to be some overlap of functions and concerns--especially *at the margins*. Different subsystems will, however, be concerned with a particular shared objective in their own special way.

The planning and organizational objectives of the policy and planning subsystem may be listed as follows:

B.1 To establish a unit (or another appropriate organizational arrangement) within the overall literacy system, so that the policy and planning objectives at the total system level can be achieved on a continuous basis.

B.2 To serve as the nerve center of the overall literacy system, keeping all subsystems in constant communication and interaction; and ensuring unity of purposes and actions.

B.3 To generate and sustain the national will, particularly the commitments of the politicians, the development elite and the policy makers to the literacy campaign, program or project -- without, at the same time, politicizing the day-to-day functioning of the literacy enterprise. (The social mobilization subsystem, to be discussed later, will focus on mass mobilization. Please take note of the overlap at the margins of the two subsystems.)

B.4 To interpret the national development policy and the national policy on literacy promotion to all important constituencies, including the functionaries of the literacy system itself. (Other subsystems then will carry on with this task of interpretation of policy to local leaders, volunteer teachers and learners within the communities.)

B.5 To provide to the leadership, at all the various levels, with a "language of justification" for literacy as they engage in the task of literacy promotion.

B.6 To obtain and clarify decisions on the general approach to literacy: campaign versus program or project; one language versus many languages of literacy; functional versus traditional definition of literacy; and productivity versus consciousness-raising as the theme in literacy work.

B.7 To obtain and disseminate decisions on priorities in regard to population centers, economic sectors and sex and age groups to be covered within the literacy program; and to establish a national time-table for the eradication of illiteracy.

B.8 To establish general norms and legal structures of incentives and disincentives to obtain and sustain participation in the program of learners and teachers.

B.9 To establish general strategies and mechanisms for planning participatively with peoples, especially within conditions of insufficient knowledge.

B.10 To conceptualize and divide the literacy experience of learners in cycles and stages as appropriate and to establish durations for different cycles and stages. (This objective will be shared with the curriculum and materials development subsystem.)

B.11 To obtain decisions on the equivalence of various cycles and stages of literacy with levels of formal education; about modes of testing and certification; in regard to credit given to literacy work in public and private service.

B.12 To do the necessary institution building such as establishing new offices and organizational mechanisms for policy making; and coordination with other systems engaged in development.

B.13 To plan for generating public and private resources for the implementation of the literacy campaign, program or project, and

B.14 To plan for optimal benefit from donor funds and outside consultants.

The planner system relevant to policy and planning objectives (Block A)

We need to describe the planner system in CLER terms. Therefore, we will answer the following question: What will a planner system in the Third World typically have in terms of configurations (C), linkages (L), environment (E), and resources (R)?

A.1 Configurations. The configurations of relevance to the planner system in this case will be the policy and planning subsystem itself; other subsystems of the overall literacy system; individuals or units representing the interests of different agencies of extension, information and education (especially the ministries of education, information and broadcasting, agriculture, health and nutrition, population and family planning, labor, and army); planning organs of the government such as the central planning commission; the government budget office; political parties and religious interests; voluntary agencies active in development and particularly in adult education; and individuals with chrisma active in the areas of politics, culture and popular arts.

A.2 Linkages. Many of the configurations listed in the paragraph above are government departments. They are all supposed to be in formal linkage, with established channels of communication. In reality, however, linkages between and among government departments are dormant and need continuous activation. Coordination of purpose or of effort can not be assumed. Ad hoc arrangements, or what are sometimes called temporary systems, will have to be created that cover governmental and nongovernmental agencies through a well conceived system of committees. Conditions will also have to be created for promoting informal linkages within the planner system.

A.3 Environment. Some support in the immediate policy environment will have to be assumed -- otherwise the literacy initiative would not have come about at all. The larger environment, typically, will be neutral at best, and inhibitive at worst.

A.4 Resources. Again, some level of resource availability will have to be assumed. Material and personnel resources will always be less than the real needs, and time will also be in short supply. The planner system will surely have some cognitive and influence resources, but in the conditions of the Third World, those resources will have to be carefully coordinated and properly marshalled. The same will be true about institutional resources.

The plan adoption system relevant to policy and planning objectives (Block C)

In the case of this particular subsystem, the typical plan adoption system in a Third World setting may be described as follows.

C.1 Configurations. In describing the planner system above, we mentioned the political elite, policy makers and functionaries of ministries of extension, information and education as part of the planner system. We need to understand, however, that they are also part of the plan adoption system. They are cast in a double role: they are potential collaboratores; but first they must be convinced to become our collaborators. The policy and planning subsystem must look at these configurations as first adopters of their literacy policies and plans. These first adopters will constitute one layer of the plan adoption system.

A second layer of the plan adoption system will consist of potential beneficiaries of literacy -- learners, local leaders, community groups and indigenous institutions who can cooperate in the process both of formulation and validation of plans.

C.2 Linkages. Most linkages will be informal and a reflection of the existing social organization. Existing linkages networks will have to be energized and new linkage networks, both formal and informal, will have to be created to fulfill the new role of participation in the planning process.

C.3 Environment. The environment at best will be neutral. It may even be inhibitive. Most functionaries of development extension departments (agriculture, health, family planning, nutrition) will consider their work more important and more urgent than literacy and will not see the literacy and development connection. Local leaders and future learners will not understand the need of literacy in their own environment.

C.4 Resources. Poverty means lack of material resources. Yet local community resources may often remain unused. Resources available to first adopters (collaborating departments) will be closely guarded.

Inventing planning and organizational actions

Many of the planning and organizational solutions will be simple translations of objectives into action statements within the concrete realities of the setting of work, that is, the context of the plan adoption system. Others will be suggested by looking at Blocks A, B and C together in their dialectical relationships. To aid the process of invention of planning and organizational solutions, we may once again think with the categories of the CLER model: How should existing configurations and configurational relationships be manipulated? What should be done with and to existing linkages? How should the operative environment be managed? How should available resources be deployed? The purpose in each case will, of course, be to promote the achievement of objectives.

A list of things to do follows. The list is not meant to be complete, but seeks to be illustrative.

1. Recruit (and train) the required personnel for the policy and planning unit.

2. Develop a committee structure to keep the various subsystems of the overall literacy system in constant communication and interaction.

3. Develop a committee structure from the center through the provincial, district and cluster levels down to the village level, to bring together government decision-makers and functionaries; and establish both horizontal and vertical integration within the committee structure.

4. Develop a parallel committee structure at corresponding levels to represent non-governmental interests.

5. Obtain statements and testimonials from the top-most political actors and development elite for use in building and sustaining momentum for the literacy campaign, program or project.

6. Write and publish clear statements on the role of literacy in development addressed separately to: (i) legislators, (ii) media workers and journalists, and (iii) functionaries of all departments of extension, information and education.

7. Write an Implementer's Handbook anticipating and answering all possible questions about the "why?," "what?" and "how?" of literacy work.

8. Develop and disseminate a schedule of coverage: How various areas and groups will be covered incrementally over a particular period of time?

9. Establish patterns of consultations with peoples through peoples seminars.

10. Lobby for the passage of laws in regard to use of incentives and disincentives to obtain participation in literacy work.

11. Name a liaison officer for each of the departments of government doing extension work and persuade extension departments to start their own literacy work, using perhaps the materials produced by the literacy system.

12. Establish a committee for making decisions on equivalence between literacy levels and school grades.

13. Engage in resource planning and budgeting.

14. Establish a committee for handling donor contributions and offers of consultancies.

As we have indicated earlier, such lists will become more and more concrete as planning moves towards implementation of plans. The various activities will also have to be put in a functional and temporal sequence so that what needs to be done first, is done first and what can wait can follow later.

CHAPTER VI

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION BY THE ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY SUBSYSTEM

In this chapter, we will focus on the planning and organizational tasks of the "Administrative and Instructional Delivery Subsystem," second on the list of nine subsystems of the overall literacy system. (See Chapter IV, pages 109-110 for this list.)

The planning model used below is the same as first presented in Chapter II (page 61), and already put to work in Chapter V above. As we focus on the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem, the general model assumes the following concrete form:

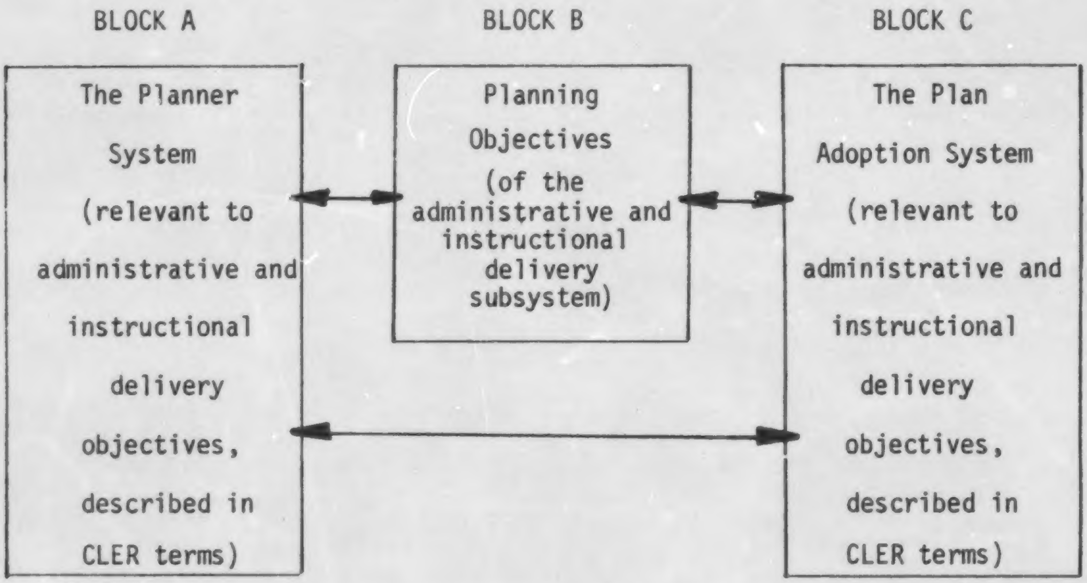

BLOCK A
BLOCK B
BLOCK C
The Planner System (relevant to administrative and instructional delivery objectives, described in CLER terms)
Planning Objectives (of the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem)
The Plan Adoption System (relevant to administrative and instructional delivery objectives, described in CLER terms)

Fig. The ABC/CLER model of planning for implementation.

Let us be reminded that while the initiative for planning will be taken by the subsystem under discussion, the planning process will be handled collaboratively by all the subsystems within the overall literacy system.

Objectives of the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem (Block B)

The essential objectives of the subsystem may be listed as follows:

B.1 To establish a unit (or another appropriate organizational arrangement) within the overall literacy system so that the administrative and instructional delivery objectives can be fulfilled both in terms of coverage and quality.

B.2 To work out the instructional and administrative implications of the plan for geographical or sectoral coverage; and of related time schedules and targets.

B.3 To conceptualize and install a multi-tier administrative and instructional system that goes from the national level through zonal, district and cluster levels down to the localities, and that is:

(i) Congruent with the structure and levels of the system in place for the delivery of development services; and

(ii) Capable of vertical and horizontal integration both with other departments and ministries of government, and with popular organizations of the peoples.

B.4 To invent needed roles (administrative, instructional and administrative-cum-instructional) and join them into a properly functioning system, such that:

(i) authority between administrative and instructional roles is clearly assigned, and

(ii) a scheme of service is available for the career development and advancement of full-time functionaries.

B.5 To establish rules and professional norms for all role performers within the literacy system, such that:

(i) decentralization and deconcentration[1] of decision making is possible; and

(ii) patterns of participation with peoples are established.

B.6 To interface the "bureaucratic" part of the literacy system with the "volunteer" part of the system so that:

(i) Volunteers are not assumed to be full-time employees and demands made on volunteer workers are not unrealistic.

(ii) Volunteers are made sensitive to their obligations once they choose to be volunteers, and suitable monetary and non-monetary rewards are made available to them in recognition of their service; and

(iii) Volunteers are offered linkages to the world of work at the end of their volunteer service.

B.7 To establish with other institutions of extension, information and education, modes of (a) instructional coordination and (b) administrative coordination so as to:

(i) integrate the total national effort in the area of human resource development in general

(ii) link literacy with development in operational terms

(iii) establish rules for entry and re-entry into the formal system of education, and

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[1] Decentralization means devolution of power to democratically designated bodies. Deconcentration means devolution of power to lower levels of administration.

(iv) aggregate material and institutional resources of all development agencies of the government for the best results.

B.8 To survey areas for choice of locations and premises for teacher-learner contacts.

B.9 To provide the needed logistics for the mobility of staff, for the distribution of instructional materials and for the flow of information.

B.10 To develop and install a record keeping system to serve the administrative needs of the system. (Supplementary systems of record-keeping will need to be established by the teaching-learning subsystem and the evaluation sub-system.)

B.11 To conceptualize and establish a system of supervision that can also serve as a system for counselling of field workers, thereby contributing to the quality of the literacy enterprise.

B.12 To ensure that the literacy system enjoys good "organizational health" and that the morale of all workers within the system is kept high.

The planner system relevant to administrative and instructional delivery objectives (Block A)

The planner system relevant to administrative and instructional delivery objectives of the literacy system in a Third World context is likely to be as follows:

A.1 Configurations. The configurations involved in this planner system will be the "Administrative and Instructional Delivery Subsystem" itself; and other subsystems of the literacy enterprise. Also involved will be administrators and directors of extension, information and education in other departments of the government. Most significantly, the incumbents of new roles created for the subsystem at its various levels will be involved as well -- both as planners and plan adopters.

A.2 Linkages. Formal linkages between and among all those configurations will have been mandated but will need to be energized. Informal linkages are unlikely to exist among functionaries working in different departments of the government; or across the various levels within the same one department.

A.3 Environment. Environment in this case will be inhibitive. There is nothing in the "culture of bureaucracy" to encourage planning and administering together or to consolidate institutional resources.

A.4 Resources. Even if material resources are available, personnel resources will be difficult to employ and deploy. The personnel needs of a national literacy program will be sizeable (e.g., 20,000 teachers, 2,000 supervisors, 200 program officers, etc.) and will be beyond the imagination of personnel departments who must sanction their employment. What we have called cognitive resources (knowledge of the literacy sector and planning techniques) will also need to be complemented through hiring outside consultants.

The plan adoption system relevant to administrative and instructional delivery objectives (Block C)

The plan adoption system must be conceptualized by the "Administrative and Instructional Delivery Subsystem" as consisting of two layers: (i) the middle- and field-level functionaries of the literacy system itself as well as of the departments with whom administrative and instructional coordination is sought; and (ii) the ultimate beneficiaries of instructional delivery whose social organization, communication and leadership patterns, and rhythm of daily activities must be respected in the design of the delivery system.

C.1 Configurations. As hinted above, the configurations will be in two layers, each layer involving its own special configurational relationships. In the first layer will be the functionaries of the literacy system as well as of the collaborating agencies, especially at the middle and field levels. In the second layer will be individuals with their particular occupations, schedules of work, and spatial spread over rural areas and estates; families with particular compositions; and communities with particular leadership and communication patterns and status and economic stratifications.

C.2 Linkages. Legally mandated linkages among functionaries of various departments and at various levels of responsibility will exist but will be insufficient. These will have to be continuously energized. Within the second layer of the plan adoption system, indigenous linkages will have to be strengthened and new linkage networks will have to be created to handle development information.

C.3 Environment. Environment will be neutral at best, and may be inhibitive to begin with.

C.4 Resources. As has been pointed out repeatedly, government departments don't want to share resources; the tendency is in the other direction. There may be some existing institutions in the community (school, church, party cell, etc.) whose resources may be used. For example, classes may be held in their premises. Sometimes local communities may want to build special huts for use as classrooms from locally available materials. On the other hand, learners may not have money to buy instructional materials or money to buy gas-lamps and kerosene to keep those lighted. Radio receiving sets may also have to be provided, if part of the instruction is planned to be delivered over the radio.

Inventing administrative and instructional delivery arrangements

Many of the "Things to do" come directly from our statement of objectives of the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem. Others are suggested by looking at Blocks A, B and C together.

1. Establish a unit to undertake the work of designing and implementing the tasks of administrative and instructional delivery through the various levels of the literacy system down to potential learners.
2. Through an appropriate invention of roles and rules, design and install the steel frame of an administrative and instructional delivery system which is duly interfaced with (i) the existing structures for the delivery of other development extension services; and (ii) the workings and structures of popular organizations.
3. Establish a concrete committee structure (or use the one already established by the "Policy and Planning Subsystem") to ensure inter-agency coordination -- both horizontal and vertical -- on a continuous basis.
4. Write rules and regulations (in cooperation with the formal education sector) to govern equivalence of literacy stages with grades of formal education; and entry and re-entry into the formal education system.
5. Establish targets and phases for the national program (in cooperation with the "Policy and Planning Subsystem"); translate national targets into regional, district and local targets; and, finally, set norms and standards for each individual functionary to meet or excel.
6. Survey existing recruitment pools from which literacy teachers might be drawn, such as, school teachers, primary or secondary school leavers,

school/university students performing national service, officials retired from the army, government or private service; and study the general characteristics of these various populations to make recruitment decisions.

7. Recruit needed personnel to fit the implementation schedule; and establish clear procedures of orientation on first posting.

8. Write a scheme of service for functionaries including suitable job descriptions for each category; rules in regard to overtime, night halts, and travel allowances that suit field work requirements (and do not push field jobs toward becoming desk jobs); and division of responsibilities between administrative and instructional roles.

9. Write a separate scheme of service for volunteers that interfaces the volunteer part of the system with the bureaucratic part of the system; is built upon realistic expectations of work from volunteers; and yet makes volunteers sensitive to their obligations.

10. Considering the middle-level and field-level functionaries of the system as first adopters, develop a monthly newsletter that keeps the system informed of objectives, functions, procedures, problems, successes, failures, challenges and expectations of the program as it becomes a "living system."

11. Devise rules for decentralization/deconcentration of responsibilities, maintaining the integrity of purpose and action for the whole system.

12. Analyze the work of each department doing development extension (agriculture, health, family planning, nutrition, etc.) to discover existing literacy components and to define future literacy components; develop a scheme whereby each department undertaking development extension might have its own delivery system for literacy; and integrate delivery of

literacy by various extension departments through the appointment of liaison officers.

13. Develop a plan to handle the logistics of the system to cover mobility of field personnel, flow of written and oral communication across the system, and distribution of instructional materials.

14. Design, test, print and distribute report forms covering the record-keeping needs of the literacy program.

15. Based on community surveys, decide participatively with communities, questions of format of contact between teachers and learners, selection of teachers, location and timing of classes and contributions of resources by individual learners and by communities.

16. Devise methods and procedures for supervision of the program and to ensure that each supervisory visit is also an opportunity for professional counselling.

17. Write a catechism on literacy for use by field workers to answer questions of learners who may be skeptical about the usefulness of literacy in their lives.

18. Hold staff camps and ceremonies for public recognition of exemplary work by teachers, supervisors and others.

As planners engaged in real literacy programs work with these ideas, they will be able to make them more and more concrete, as their context demands and as their resources permit. They will also be able to arrange the various items in their lists of "What to do" and "How to do" in an appropraite functional and temporal sequence.

CHAPTER VII

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATIONAL TASKS FOR THE TECHNICAL SUPPORT SUBSYSTEM

Let us begin by referring to the ABC/CLER model of planning for implementation introduced in its general form in Chapter II, page 61 and, again, in Chapter IV, page 109; and made concrete in relation to particular subsystems in Chapter V, page 125, and Chapter VI, page 133. We now describe Blocks A, B and C as they relate to the "Technical Support Subsystem" of the overall literacy system.

Objectives of the technical support subsystem (Block B)

The objectives of the "Technical Support Subsystem" can be stated as follows:

B.1 To establish a unit (or another appropriate organizational arrangement such as a committee) to be able to bring about a back-up system for providing technical support to the overall literacy system.

B.2 To actually bring into being a back-up system that can provide technical and professional support to the literacy system in relation to:

- (i) training of personnel, especially at middle and higher levels of the hierarchy
- (ii) development of curriculum, and design and publication of curriculum materials
- (iii) evaluation of impact of the literacy program, and
- (iv) policy and action oriented research, dealing with various aspects of literacy.

B.3 To institutionalize, to the extent possible, the provision of professional and technical support from the back-up system to the literacy system.

The planner system relevant to the design of professional and technical back-up system (Block A)

A description of the planner system can be as follows:

A.1 Configurations. The "Technical Support Subsystem" will take the initiative to plan (in collaboration with all other subsystems of the overall literacy system).

A.2 Linkages. Linkages with other subsystems, especially the curriculum and materials development subsystem, the training subsystem and the evaluation subsystem will have to be maintained.

A.3 Environment. The immediate work environment can be assumed to be supportive.

A.4 Resources. An adequate level of resource availability will have to be assumed.

The plan adoption system relevant to technical support objectives (Block C)

The following CLER-description of the system is offered:

C.1 Configurations. The configurations which the "Technical Support Subsystem" will have to knit together into a professional and technical back-up system will include:

(i) private consultants

(ii) universities and teacher training colleges

(iii) specialized research centers dealing with pedagogical, linguistic and social research

(iv) libraries and museums

(v) media organizations

(vi) professional associations of writers, journalists, and artists

(vii) voluntary associations with experience in literacy work

(viii) publishers of books, and

(ix) census bureau and other information gathering agencies.

C.2 Linkages. Formal linkages between and among the above configurations are unlikely to exist. Informal linkages, if any, will be random. Linkages between the planner system (the Technical Support Subsystem) and the plan adoption system (described above) are likely to be non-existent.

C.3 Environment. The environment of the configurations above is likely to be inhibitive. The academic and professional aspirations of professors and researchers are likely to discourage them from working for the literacy campaign, program or project.

C.4 Resources. Resources available to the plan adoption system will be considerable; and the cognitive and institutional resources of the system will be enriched and strengthened through use. Some material resources may have to be channeled to the plan adoption system through the "Technical Support Subsystem."

Inventing a technical and professional back-up system

These are some of the things a planner system may do to bring into being a professional and technical back-up system:

1. Develop a list of consultants (from home and abroad) to work on the various aspects of the literacy program; and provide them with counterparts when they come to work in the program.

2. Develop a list of "Friends of the Literacy Program" who may be willing to give professional advice by correspondence.

3. Establish degree, diploma and certificate courses in nonformal education, covering literacy, adult education and various other aspects of development extension.

4. Establish a "Committee on Research" to develop a list of evaluation and research topics of interest both to the literacy system and the research community; and act as a liaison between researchers and field workers to assist in data collection efforts.

5. Persuade the census bureau and other information gathering agencies to collect literacy-relevant data.

6. Persuade librarians to build collections of professional literature on adult education and literacy as well as of reading materials for new readers.

7. Establish writers workshops through which journalists and writers can write books for new readers.

8. Establish a group of publishers interested in publishing for new readers.

9. Establish a network of Literacy Resource Centers at the national, provincial and district levels to serve the immediate and day-to-day professional and technical needs of literacy workers.

Within the concrete realities of a social system, the planner will be able to make these various ideas more concrete as well as organize them into a schedule that is responsive to actual needs.

CHAPTER VIII

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL MOBILIZATION

We now turn to the "Social Mobilization Subsystem," the fourth of nine subsystems listed on pages 109-110 above. This chapter follows the format now well established in previous chapters.

Objectives of the social mobilization subsystem (Block B)

Motivations are seldom spontaneous. Mobilization is necessary for promoting participation of the people in development. Neither the need to mobilize, nor the ability to mobilize is confined to a particular type of political culture. Both socialist societies and representative democracies have done successful mobilization of their people when faced with important challenges.

In the typical context of Third World countries, the "Social Mobilization Subsystem" is likely to have the following objectives:

B.1 To establish a unit (or another appropriate organizational mechanism, such as a committee), so that the social mobilization function can be effectively performed.

B.2 To synthesize a set of culturally-rooted symbols and slogans to which the people of a society will emotively respond.

B.3 To mobilize the media and information dissemination resources of the State to make them serve the goals and purposes of the literacy program.

B.4 To institutionalize participation and control of decision-making by the people at the various levels of the literacy program.

B.5 Through the established structures of participation and control

(B.4 above), to motivate learners to learn and volunteers to teach.

B.6 To reinforce social mobilization through changes in economic, social and political structures so that both teaching and learning of literacy can be rewarded.

The planner system relevant to social mobilization objectives (Block A)

A CLER-based description of a typical planner system for social mobilization is offered below:

A.1 Configurations. The planner system will typically involve the "Social Mobilization Subsystem" itself, and other subsystems dealing with policy and planning, administration and instructional delivery, training and evaluation. Media and information dissemination agencies of the State will also be part of the planner system. Associations dealing with folk arts, theatre and drama will have to be integrated into the planner system as well as celebrities from different areas of culture and politics.

A.2 Linkages. There will be some linkages existing among the various subsystems of the overall literacy system. However, few linkages are likely to exist between the literacy system, on the one hand, and media agencies and dramatic and folk art associations, on the other. No linkages are likely to exist between the literacy system and the celebrities in the areas of culture, art and politics. All these linkages will have to be created and maintained.

A.3 Environment. The environment surrounding the planner system will at best be neutral and may even be inhibitive to begin with.

A.4 Resources. Techniques of social mobilization are seldom learned in schools and colleges. The "Social Mobilization Subsystem" will have to learn these techniques, or use the services of those who already know. Influence resources of celebrities could be put to work, but first those celebrities will have to be courted and made part of the planner system. The "Social Mobilization Subsystem" must learn to use the variety and the amount of institutional resources of media and information dissemination agencies of the State as well as of voluntary associations of art and theatre.

The plan adoption system relevant to social mobilization objectives (Block C)

A CLER-based description of the plan adoption system follows:

C.1 Configurations. The configurations of the plan adoption system will include local leaders; age-groups and other indigenous groups; indigenous institutions such as the chief's baraza/kgotla; secular institutions introduced under development programs; and communities.

C.2 Linkages. Some informal linkages will exist among indigenous leaders, groups and institutions. There might be some overlap of membership between indigenous and secular institutions, but linkages between them will typically need considerable strengthening and repair.

C.3 Environment. Environment for social mobilization surrounding the plan adoption system will be inhibitive. In fact social mobilization has one of its objectives to create a new environment within which commitments to a program of action can be made.

C.4 Resources. Material resources may not be many but considerable institutional resources and resources of influence will exist, and ready to be put to work.

Inventing strategies for social mobilization

The following actions suggest themselves as we look at Blocks A, B and C in togetherness:

1. Make a study of cultural and religous traditions, of history and myth, and of contemporary political pronouncements to find justifications for a literate society; and symbols and slogans to promote literacy work.

2. Based on a national competition, choose a logo for the literacy campaign, program or project.

3. Use national media facilities to create awareness about and commitment to the program: (i) Radio for short spots promoting literacy; for holding competitions for the best literacy song of the season; and for a serial dramatizing the need of literacy for individuals as well as for the nation; and (ii) Newspapers to provide pull-out sheets of alphabet charts, literacy lessons, motivational posters to attract teachers and learners and training materials for literacy teachers and monitors. (In the content of communication, emphasize mobilization of both teachers and learners; and break the obsessive connection between literacy and salaried jobs.)

4. Make an inventory of the information dissemination and mobilization strategies of all development extension agencies of the State and establish collaborative relationships with each of them.

5. Arrange with national producers and distributors of consumer goods and with postal and transportation services of the country to carry pro-literacy messages on solf-drink bottles and cans, matchboxes, tea bags, sugar and flour sacks, postcards, stamps and tickets.

6. As envisaged by the policy and planning subsystem, conduct village

to village motivational work, bring about a network of literacy committees (or literacy subcommittees of already existent development committees) from the village level, through the district and provincial levels, to the national level to project community interests and to make literacy a part of the people's business.

7. Under the leadership of literacy committees or subcommittees organize rallies, put up billboards, participate in festivals, film shows and exhibitions, invite celebrities, disseminate testimonials from top-most politicians and organize group meetings to cover almost every citizen -- young and old, male and female. (In this aspect of work pay special attention to the use of folk media.)

8. With the assistance of and in collaboration with literacy committees/subcommittees, motivate people to volunteer to teach; learners to attend classes; choose locations and premises for classes; and devise methods to reach the hard to reach groups. (In some cases, local communities may not be interested in the flow of resources to disadvantaged groups. In such circumstances, the functionaries of the program will have to act in behalf of the disadvantaged groups, and take special actions to enroll them into the program.)

9. (Following the Tanzanian example), use literacy tests as a way of mobilization by holding national examinations annually or bi-annually and awarding certificates at special public ceremonies.

10. Award flags to be flown in villages that have become fully literate.

11. Reinforce symbolic rewards with structural changes by providing literacy dividends to workers in the formal sector and leadership positions to literates in the rural communities.

The preceding list will have to be adapted to suit the specific conditions and context of a particular literacy campaign, program or project. Literacy workers will also need to string these various ideas on a suitable time schedule to fit their circumstances.

CHAPTER IX

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF MATERIALS

The "Curriculum and Materials Development Subsystem" is fifth on the list of nine subsystems into which the overall literacy system has been divided. (Chapter IV, pages 109-110.) This subsystem is such an important part of the whole system that literacy workers have often confused part with the whole: They have thought of literacy work as consisting of nothing more than planning, producing and distributing materials to learners.

As we discuss below the planning and organizational objectives of curriculum development and materials distribution in terms of the ABC/CLER model, the reader will notice overlaps, at the margins, between the curriculum and materials development subsystem and other subsystems, for example, policy and planning subsystem, administrative and instructional delivery subsystem, social mobilization subsystem, technical support subsystem, teaching-learning subsystem, post-literacy subsystem and training and evaluation subsystems. Many objectives will be shared among these various subsystems, but each subsystem will have its own special orientation to a commonly held objective and will make its special contribution to the achievement of that objective.

Objectives of the curriculum and materials development subsystem (Block B)

The objectives of this subsystem fall in four related categories: curriculum planning based on need assessments; getting materials written, drawn and scripted; getting materials produced; and getting them distributed to learners. A list of objectives follows, by way of illustration:

B.1 To establish a unit (or another appropriate organizational mechanism) so that the curriculum and materials development objectives and production and distribution needs of the literacy system can be handled.

B.2 With the assistance of the evaluation subsystem, to conduct assessments of learning needs, to form the basis of curriculum development for general as well as for disadvantaged groups.

B.3 To obtain or to make decisions to cover:

(i) Distinctions between materials to fulfill instructional or motivational purposes.

(ii) Distribution in control of curriculum content among national, regional and community levels; and establishment of mechanisms to make curriculum development at the various levels possible in practical terms.

(iii) Special curriculum needs of disadvantaged groups such as women, minorities and the poorest of the poor.

(iv) Curricular coordination with other government departments of extension, information and education.

(v) Definition of the theme and content of functionality (conscientization _versus_ productivity) and the elaboration of the theme and content in curricular materials, independently or in concert with other extension departments and the political party or parties.

(vi) Methodology of literacy teaching, with clarification of relative emphases on reading, writing and numeracy.

(vii) Use of one national primer _versus_ many primers differentiated in regard to language and functional content, and responsive to the mode of delivery of literacy by campaign, program or project.

(viii) Combination of print, folk and electronic media in the overall curricular package.

(ix) Materials not only for learners but also for teachers and discussion leaders.

(x) Concerns about equivalence of literacy curricula with school curricula so that those who wish to enter the formal education system can be enabled to do so, and

(xi) Materials that provide a bridge between literacy and post-literacy materials and programs and ultimately link learners with the learning society.

B.4 To arrange for the writing, drawing and scripting of the variety of educational materials planned for teachers and learners.

B.5 To produce (or get produced) all required curricular materials at the time and in the quantities required.

B.6 To ensure (with the collaboration of the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem), the distribution of materials to learners when and where those materials are needed, and

B.7 To obtain (with the assistance of the evaluation subsystem), feedback on relevance and success of curriculum materials; and to establish mechanisms for the continuous revision of curricular methods and materials.

The planner system relevant to curriculum and materials development subsystem (Block A)

A CLER-based description of the planner system will look like the following:

A.1 Configurations. The planner system configurations will include the Curriculum and Materials Development Subsystem as the primary agent, working in collaboration with relevant subsystems such as the evaluation subsystem, the training subsystem, the post-literacy subsystem, the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem and the policy and planning subsystem. Also included in the planner system, will be other government agencies of extension, information and education as well as nation-wide voluntary associations in education and development. Political and religious interests may also have to be reflected in the planner system. Another set of configurations will consist of writers, artists and filmmakers; printers and publishers; and transporters and distributors.

A.2 Linkages. Within the boundaries of the overall literacy system some formal linkages can be assumed, but these will have to be continuously energized both horizontally and vertically. Outside the literacy system, no linkages worth the name may exist. For many configurations, any linkage building effort may mean the first ever contact with another configuration.

A.3 Environment. The environment surrounding the planner system is likely to be neutral at best, and inhibitive at worst.

A.4 Resources. There will be considerable cognitive resources spread within the system. These will have to be integrated, and, perhaps, even supplemented through the Technical Support Subsystem. A minimum of material and personnel resources will have to be assumed, but, typically, more resources will be needed if serious and systematic work in the area of curriculum development is to be done. Institutional (and infrastructural) resources will be inadequate for handling distribution and storage. Time resources will be perennially in short supply.

The plan adoption system relevant to curriculum and materials development subsystem (Block C)

A CLER-based description of the plan adoption system may look like the following:

C.1 Configurations. The ultimate plan adoption configurations are the learners -- men, women and youth -- working and living within various economic and social settings. But the field workers of the literacy system as well as of other extension departments will have to mediate this curriculum to the learners. They will thus become the first layer of adopters, and must be treated both as planners and plan adopters.

C.2 Linkages. Informal linkages exist, of course, in any community. However, these are unlikely to be sufficient for effective adoption of an organized curriculum.

C.3 Environment. At best, the environment will be neutral. If vested interests are threatened, the environment will become inhibitive.

C.4 Resources. Cognitive resources will need to be built through motivational campaigns and field animation. Influence resources of local leaders will be available for use. Material resources will be few among the poor, and may not be spent on purchase of curriculum products. Local institutions could be put to effective use for the purposes of promoting adoption.

Planning and organizational tasks of curriculum development and materials distribution

The following list, by no means complete and comprehensive, suggests the things to do in the area of curriculum and materials development:

1. Establish a Curriculum and Materials Development Unit with curriculum specialists, writer-editors, graphic artists, photographers on its staff as needed.

2. Establish a strong curriculum committee representing all relevant interests, with special sub-committees dealing with curriculum for disadvantaged groups.

2.1 Promote the establishment of curriculum committees at the regional, district and local levels, as necessary.

3. With the assistance of the evaluation subsystem, conduct needs assessment to serve as the basis for curriculum plans; and promote similar patterns and procedures for needs assessments at lower levels.

4. Clarify choices in regard to the language of literacy; general methodological approaches to teaching of literacy; theme and content of functionality; levels and stages of literacy; levels of functional content; and methods and standards of testing learners. Include them into the Implementer's Handbook already suggested. (See No. 7 on page 131.)

5. Conduct people's seminars at various levels of the system to validate curriculum plans and organization for delivery.

6. In making concrete curriculum plans, cover both motivational and instructional materials; materials for teachers as well as for learners; and not only print materials but also nonprint (folk and electronic) media.

7. Analyze the extension plans and the materials published by extension departments, and bring out the curriculum built into their programs for the purposes of curricular coordination between the literacy system and extension work.

8. Establish writers workshops:

(i) To write primers and teaching manuals

(ii) To write graded books to follow primers

(iii) To write or adapt extension materials to teach "functionality"

(iv) To write radio scripts, etc.

9. Establish a network of Learning Resource Centers (LRC's) at the regional and local levels so that locally relevant materials can be produced for use of learners.

9.1 The LRC's could serve the larger interests of extension, information and education in communities serving, for example, those enrolled in correspondence courses as also the general development extension program needs.

10. With the help of the evaluation subsystem establish procedures for pre-testing of all materials produced -- primers, training manuals, posters, radio progams, etc.

11. Produce (or arrange production of) reading materials, and related nonprint media items.

12. Prepare production and distribution schedules for each item of curriculum materials.

13. Establish a system of inventory control of curriculum materials (with the assistance of administrative and instructional delivery subsystem).

14. With the assistance of the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem: organize materials into instructional kits to be distributed to literacy teachers and monitors; taking in view the available governmental and nongovernmental transportation systems for the delivery of goods and services, develop, test and establish a system for the distribution of curriculum materials, including deliveries to meet emergencies.

15. Again, with the assistance of the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem, establish storage facilities (perhaps in schools, churches, government offices, party cells and private homes).

16. In collaboration with the formal education system, establish equivalences between literacy levels and school grades, and clarify procedures for entry and re-entry across the two systems.

17. With the assistance of the evaluation subsystem establish feedback mechanisms to support overall curriculum evaluation as well as the evaluation of individual curriculum items.

As we work on the tasks listed above in the context of an on-going literacy campaign, program or project, many of these items will generate further lists of "Things to do" and "How to do them." For instance, in a country with not enougn printing facilities, Item 11 above, may become a planning problem of sizeable proportions. In each case, again, these various items will have to be arranged into a time schedule.

CHAPTER X

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION OF THE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS

In a real sense, the "Teaching-Learning Subsystem" is an emergent subsystem. As part of the initiatives arising from other subsystems, the mode of contact between teachers and learners (each-one-teach-one, many volunteer-student dyads under the supervision of one trained teacher, regular literacy class) would already have been decided upon. Class or contact sites would have been selected and an overall instructional format already established. Instructional materials would have been made available, teachers or monitors trained and learners mobilized to participate.

We have conceptualized a separate teaching-learning subsystem to focus attention directly on the process that is surely the heart of the matter of a literacy enterprise. This is where the literacy system comes alive. This is where quality must be assured. (At an operational level, it is possible that some literacy programs will handle the objectives of the teaching-learning subsystem through the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem.)

Objectives of the teaching-learning subsytem (Block B)

The objectives of the "Teaching-Learning Subsystem" may be visualized as follows:

B.1 To establish within the overall literacy system, a unit (or another appropriate organizational arrangement) whereby the support and the quality of the teaching-learning process can be assured.

B.2 To devise (and test and re-devise) modes of contact between teachers and learners that fit the ecological, geographical, social, occupational and technological realities and constraints.

B.2.1 To diversify modes of contact, if necessary.

B.3 To ensure that class sites (or contact sites) provide satisfactory conditions for learning, are properly equipped and do not constrain instructional objectives.

B.3.1 To ensure that, if demonstration plots or farms are needed, those are available and accessible.

B.4 To ensure that the teaching team (of the teacher, local extension workers, local experts willing to exchange skills) actually comes about and does not remain a paper plan.

B.5 To monitor the instructional process so as to ensure that:

(i) Due attention is paid to the social organization of the class so that old and undesirable relationships between males and females, and between majority and minority groups are not reinforced, but learners are indeed socialized into entering new and preferred relationships.

(ii) The teacher actually performs the role assigned to him/her as literacy teacher, change agent or party activist.

(iii) Learner motivations and satisfactions are promoted through learner counselling, and inter-learning among peers.

(iv) Testing, if undertaken, is put to pedagogical uses and not merely to certify.

B.6 To create conditions wherein learners become independent learners and active disseminators of their acquired knowledge within families and communities.

B.7 To provide teachers and supervisors opportunities to internalize professional and participative values and to grow in their jobs.

The planner system relevant to the teaching-learning subsystem (Block A)

A CLER-based description of the planner system may look like the following:

A.1 Configurations. The primary configuration within the planner system will be the teaching-learning subsystem itself. As was indicated earlier, literacy programs will most likely want to handle the objectives of this subsystem as part of the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem and not engage in a proliferation of subsystems. In such a case, it may be useful to change the designation of supervisor to something like the "Instructional Process Consultant." Other subsystems involved will be the curriculum and materials development subsystem, and the training and evaluation subsystems. Field level staffs of collaborating departments of extension will also have to be made part of the planner system.

A.2 Linkages. In-house linkages (within the literacy system) can be assumed, though their integration -- both horizontal and vertical -- will need to be continuously strengthened. Special attention will need to be paid to horizontal linkages at the field level.

A.3 Environment. Environment will be neutral at best, and maybe inhibitive. The prevailing tradition and traditional conceptions of the teacher and learner roles may both inhibit the bringing about of a dynamic teaching-learning subsystem.

A.4 Resources. A minimum level of resource availability will have to be assumed. Resource-building in the cognitive and institutional domains will be crucial.

The plan adoption system relevant to the teaching-learning subsystem (Block C)

Description of a typical plan adoption system, using the CLER categories, follows:

C.1 Configurations. The primary configurations involved here are the learners and their teachers, monitors and helpers. They are the participants in the teaching-learning process. Another important set of configurations will include the supervisor (or the instructional process consultant) and the field staff of collaborating extension departments. Also involved will be the local leaders, the families of learners, and institutions at the community level.

C.2 Linkages. Part of the linkages between and among learners, teachers, supervisors, extension workers will have to be formalized, but informal linkages will play a more crucial role. Informal linkages among learners, their peers and families and other institutions in which they participate will have to be made highly dynamic.

C.3 Environment. At the best, environment will be neutral. People teaching and learning can question the status quo and the spillover of learning into the community may threaten routines and vested interests.

C.4 Resources. Sizeable resources at the community level may be available for use -- people ready to exchange skills, to contribute time, and to offer facilities. Some cognitive resources may be brought in by the planner system.

Planning and organizational tasks of the teaching-learning subsystem

A list of suggested tasks follows:

1. Establish a unit (or another appropriate organizational arrangement) to achieve the objectives of the teaching-learning subsystem.

2. In collaboration with the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem, re-design the role of the supervisor so that the supervisor becomes an instructional process consultant.

3. In collaboration with the training subsystem, develop training content and socialization procedures so that the role of the instructional process consultant can actually be performed.

4. Provide an orientation to the village literacy committee (or to the literacy sub-committee of the village development committee) to enable it to lead and contribute to the teaching-learning process at the community level.

5. Make a study of the patterns of life and work in communities and their cultural, ecological and social contexts to establish a variety of formats for contact between teachers and learners; and to establish a variety of time schedules for different groups of learners.

6. Let literacy teachers assume their teaching duties in public ceremonies. Taking the oath of office could well be a part of this public ceremony.

7. Write a code of conduct for the literacy teacher, also describing the concept of an ideal teacher.

8. Establish a list of teacher alternates in each community who can keep the class going if the class teacher is sick, absent or has abandoned the learner group.

8.1 In some cases, one of the learners should be able to act as a manager of the group until such time that a regular teacher is found again.

9. Arrange for best possible conditions of learning in chosen class sites.

10. Where demonstration plots or work sheds are needed for teaching functional literacy, these should be made accessible.

11. In collaboration with the curriculum and materials development subsystem, write a portion in the teachers handbook, dealing with the management of learning, to include:

(i) an instructional format that all teachers could follow and an imaginative teacher could build upon to match his or her creativity.

(ii) ideas on seating arrangements when engaged in individual work and when working as a group

(iii) peer teaching to handle fast and slow learners

(iv) invitations to guest learners (a learner's relative visiting from another village) and to guest teachers (a secondary school child at home during Christmas) who offer to help, and

(v) ideas on proper use of tests for instructional and promotion purposes.

12. Establish a rule that teachers keep a journal (in addition to the attendance register) to record qualitative data on their learners and on their own growth as teachers.

13. Establish general norms and procedures for supervisory/counselling visits to cover:

(i) the intervals of time at which a supervisory/counselling visit must be made

(ii) the minimum duration of such supervisory/counselling visits

(iii) the idea that the visit is not merely to the teacher, but to the learners and indeed to the community itself

(iv) the notion that the supervisor/counsellor must call and attend a meeting of the village literacy committee during his/her visit

(v) visitations with learner groups to see teaching-learning in action

(vi) professional counseling of the teacher, and

(vii) comments to be included in the teacher's journal.

14. Establish a link between learner groups and communities:

(i) Through radio forums open to both literates and illiterates

(ii) Through conducting extension education programs open to learners in classes as well as to members of the community in general.

(iii) Through establishing "skills exchanges" where teachers become learners and learners become teachers to the overall benefit of the whole community.

(iv) Through learners each adopting a "next learner" who would perhaps join in the next cycle of the program.

(v) Through periodical community hearings where progress on the program is reported to all by all -- supervisor, teacher, learners, community leaders, interested community members, and

(vi) Through organizing educational festivals where the usefulness and joy of learning are both celebrated.

All of the suggestions made above may not apply to all teaching-learning settings. Those working on on-going literacy programs may be able to invent some other more appropriate strategies for promoting good learning by those enrolled in literacy groups and by communities in general. The list provides a start; it is something to think with. Literacy workers will also have to fit their lists of "Things to do" on an appropriate time schedule.

CHAPTER XI

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION FOR THE POST-LITERACY STAGES

The prefix "post" in the phrase post-literacy can be misleading. Learners will, of course, enter post-literacy programs after they have acquired a reasonable level of literacy. However, this does not mean that the planner or the organizer of post-literacy programs has to wait. In the context of a particular overall literacy program, planning for the teaching of literacy and the provision of post-literacy should be handled coterminously.

It makes sense, from the planning point of view, to handle the "Post-Literacy Subsystem" separately from other subsystems in the overall literacy system. We must, however, notice the many overlaps between the post-literacy subsystem and other subsystems, such as, the policy and planning subsystem, the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem, the technical support subsystem and the curriculum and materials development subsystem.

Objectives of the post-literacy subsystem (Block B)

The objectives of the "Post-Literacy Subsystem" may be seen to be the following:

B.1 To establish a unit (or another organizational arrangement) to undertake the conceptualization and implementation of post-literacy programs.

B.2 To promote the idea that there are things to learn beyond a set of primers, and that literacy needs to be put to work in the acquisition of knowledge throughout life.

B.3 To conceptualize and install a post-literacy program:

(i) that will ensure that literacy skills acquired by adults in literacy classes and by children and youth in schools are retained

(ii) that will promote the practice of literacy by new literates and school leavers in all the various aspects of life -- social, economic and political, and

(iii) that will enable those who want to continue with their formal education to have a second chance formal education.

B.4 To define the size and scope of the post-literacy program to cover:

(i) choice of general curriculum themes such as national integration, global orientation, and "scientific literacy"

(ii) choice of special learner groups -- youth, women, disadvantaged groups, etc.

(iii) choice of special sectors of development to be emphasized in the program

(iv) choice of language or languages; and strategies of transfer from literacy in the vernacular to literacy in the national language, if applicable

(v) questions of modes of delivery -- organized contact groups, correspondence courses, broadcast strategies, etc.

B.5 To institutionalize various programs -- some in the short-run and others in a large time-frame -- to contribute to the emergence of a learning environment and ultimately to a learning society.

The planner system relevant to the post-literacy subsystem (Block A)

A CLER-based description of the planner system in regard to the post-literacy subsystem in a typical Third World country may look like the following:

A.1 Configurations. The "Post-Literacy Subsystem" will be the primary configuration, working closely with the policy and planning subsystem, the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem, the technical support subsystem, the curriculum and materials development subsystem, etc. The interfacing of the literacy program with formal education is such an important issue today that the formal education system will have to be part of the planner system. All the ministries and departments of the State engaged or interested in HRD (Human Resource Development) must also be integrated into the planner system. Finally, the associations of writers and journalists, printers and publishers must be part of the planner system.

A.2 Linkages. Formal linkages within the literacy system can be assumed, but not between the literacy system and the formal education system; nor between the literacy system and other extension departments of the government. Formal linkages will have to be established with non-governmental configurations such as writers associations and publishers, through the establishment of ad-hoc committees. Informal linkages will need to be promoted throughout the planner system.

A.3 Environment. Literacy workers (as well as other development workers) often complain about the lack of a literate environment in rural (and even in urban) areas of the developing world. That means an inhibitive environment for post-literacy work. Infrastructures are weak. Promotion of literacy and popularization of knowledge challenges entrenched interests.

A.4 Resources. We will have to assume that a minimum of material and personnel resources will have been made available to the "Post-Literacy Subsystem." While resources are always scarce in the developing areas of the world, whatever resources are available are often under-utilzied or mis-used. There will be considerable scope for a better deployment of the resources of departments engaged in HRD.

The plan adoption system relevant to the post-literacy subsystem (Block C)

A CLER-based description of the plan adoption system follows:

C.1 Configurations. The configurations of the plan adoption system will include: graduates of literacy groups who have now become new literates; youth who as school leavers have returned to the communities; dropouts from schools looking for a second chance formal education; special disadvantaged groups; churches, factories, schools who may act as mediators of the post-literacy programs; and local leaders and political influentials.

C.2 Linkages. Some informal linkages will exist as part of the existing social organization, but these linkages will require to be strengthened. Formal linkages will have to be created with organized groups and institutions.

C.3 Environment. School leavers and some adults looking for a second chance for formal education will contribute to a supportive environment. Overall, the environment is likely to be neutral at best.

C.4 Resources. Local institutional resources should be available for the delivery of services. Some cognitive resources should also be usable in skill exchanges and in conducting discussion groups. While learners may be willing to buy books and other instructional materials for use in the post-literacy program in which they are enrolled, post-literacy programs will have to be almost completely subsidized. Influence resources of local leaders should be put to work in mobilizing participants.

Planning and organizational tasks of the post-literacy subsystem

The following list should illustrate the variety of tasks in which the post-literacy subsystem should be involved:

1. Establish a Post-Literacy Unit or another appropriate organizational arrangement to plan and implement post-literacy programs.

2. Establish a "post-literacy programs coordination committee" to coordinate all post-literacy programs based on:

   (i) print media
   (ii) electronic media -- TV, radio and tape cassettes and
   (iii) folk media.

2.1 Ensure, on the one hand, that post-literacy programs are literacy-oriented, but, at the same time, make sure that those programs do not exclude the illiterate from the development process.

3. Develop a reasonable number of curricular foci (Culture and History, Political Education, Agricultural Productivity, Family Education, Science and Technology, Fiction -- Old and New, etc.) and write series of books in each that are graded in terms of content and vocabulary.

4. Establish a special committee for second chance education to decide

upon questions of equivalence and solve problems of entry into the school system as a second chance for formal education.

5. To promote the writing of suitable reading materials for new readers:

(i) establish a variety of temporary and permanent writers workshops

(ii) introduce prize schemes for writers (as well as for publishers)

(iii) commission adaptations of classics for reading by new literates

(iv) depute reading materials specialists to all extension departments that have publication programs of their own to introduce readability controls in their materials written for farmers and workers, and

(v) persuade newspaper editors to issue a special page for new readers in their daily editions.

6. Support vocabulary and reading interests research in the universities (in collaboration with the Technical Support Subsystem); and make it available to writers and directors of writers workshops.

7. Help publishers to install printing presses and obtain quotas for the import of printing paper to be used exclusively for post-literacy materials.

8. Establish study circles, problem-solving groups and radio forums in communities whereby people can engage in various activities of group learning and group action.

9. Establish a network of rural libraries for the distribution of

reading materials.

10. Arrange for new literates to continue their nonformal education through Folk Development Colleges (Example: Tanzania); and formal continuing education through night schools, and spare-time schools; workers and farmers universities; and free and open universities of various types.

Once again, let us be reminded that the above list is not a complete list. There are some other things one could do. Also, it is a general list which will have to be made concrete by literacy planners working in specific settings.

Once a listing of "Things to do" is ready, it will have to be made time-sensitive. That is, to make post-literacy programs operational, these will have to be put on a time schedule.

CHAPTER XII

PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION OF TRAINING AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

The "Training Subsystem" is eighth on the list of nine subsystems of the overall literacy system presented on pages 109-110. In the graphic on page 111, the training subsystem is shown to intersect, directly or indirectly, with all the other eight subsystems. The point being made is that all the subsystems have training needs of some sort.

"Education" is often differentiated from "training." Education is seen as a more general process involving the development of mind, capabilities and character. Training is seen as having a more practical intent, resulting in the acquisition of a skill. There is another related term -- orientation. Orientation is a process that introduces one to a new environment, program or task. The training subsystem has to concern itself with all these three processes to make effective contributions to a literacy program.

With these introductory remarks, we turn to the theme of planning and organization of training and staff development.[1] In doing so, we will use the ABC/CLER model and follow the format already established in earlier chapter.

In this chapter (and throughout this monograph), the word "teaching" is used in relation to the formation of learners, and the word "training" is used for the professional capacitation of literacy teachers, supervisors and other staff. Thus, we talk of "literacy teaching" and "teacher training;" but we do not use the phrase "literacy training."

[1] By staff development we mean the instruction provided to staff in formal institutions of higher and specialized education.

Objectives of the training subsystem (Block B)

The objectives of the training subsystem may be stated as follows:

B.1 To establish a training unit so that the needs of the overall literacy system in regard to orientation, training and long-term staff development can be fulfilled.

B.2 To analyze the immediate and long-term orientation, training and staff development needs of the overall literacy system.

B.3 To undertake measures and actions for the provision of needed training so that:

(i) there is coherence between the overall program philosophy and training methodologies used

(ii) there is attention given to in-service training as well as to socialization on the job

(iii) appropriate training materials are developed for use in such training, and

(iv) feedback procedures are established to ensure continued improvement of the training function within the overall literacy campaign, program or project.

The planner system relevant to the training subsystem (Block A)

A CLER-based description of the planner system follows:

A.1 Configurations. The training unit at the center will not normally be able to conduct all training by itself. Nor, will it be able to fulfill all training needs from within the overall literacy system. It will have to go out for help. This will mean a network of complex configurational relationships with in-house staff at the national level, with experienced practitioners at various levels of the overall literacy system, with functionaries of other extension departments, with universities and teachers colleges, with voluntary agencies and with consultants from inside the country and from abroad.

A.2 Linkages. A minimal of formal linkages in-house can be assumed. Informal linkages will need to be created, however. With outside individuals and institutions, both formal and informal linkages will have to be established.

A.3 Environment. At best the environment will be found neutral. The environment will perhaps not be supportive of universities doing training for field level practitioners; nor for voluntary agencies and government departments to be working together.

A.4 Resources. Training planning and training design skills are not likely to abound within the training subsystem and will need to be developed. Influence resources of various political actors and the elite will have to be used to ensure cooperation from universities and others. Material and personnel resources will always be in short supply. Since it is often impractical to have a large number of full-time trainers on regular staff, personnel problems acquire a special character within the training enterprise. Some institutional resources will exist, but some new training centers may have to be created to institutionalize the literacy training function. Time, again, will be in short supply and "multiplier" models of various kinds will have to be developed for use.

The plan adoption system relevant to the training subsystem (Block C)

The plan adoption system may be seen to be in two layers: the trainees (literacy teachers, supervisors, writers of materials, etc.) who will submit themselves to training; and the communities who will first supply the trainees and then accept them back as field workers in their midsts.

C.1 Configurations. In the first layer will be school leavers (boys and girls), maybe volunteers from a national service of some sort, some primary school teachers and, perhaps, retired government servants. In the second layer will be the local leaders, families, village groups and factions, and communities with their special status and power distributions.

C.2 Linkages. Trainees will, of course, be part of the social organization of communities from which they come. If teachers and supervisors are being trained to work in communities other than their own, problems of developing informal linkages in their context of work will require more than superficial attention. Appointment as teachers -- even as low paid voluntary teachers -- confers status and those who return to their own communities as teachers will also have to handle some social adaptations. Vertical linkages between field workers and the literacy system will develop over time, but horizontal linkages among teachers and supervisors will have to be worked for. During the course of training programs "instant" social organizations will emerge, which trainers will have to keep in mind in the delivery of training.

C.3 Environment. Environment of field work for trainees will at best be neutral; it will more likely be inhibitive. Literacy is not always valued in poor communities where its usefulness is not understood. The new secular role of the literacy teacher may be resented by the existing power structure. The nature of environments must be reflected in the training programs of the literacy system.

C.4 Resources. Trainees may not be able to come for training for one large block of time. They may have some influence resources -- that is what may have lead to their election or selection as teacher or supervisor, in the first place. At the community level, there may be cognitive resources which could be used for training (in the form of guest lecturers and local program monitors) and some institutional resources that could be used in the delivery of training and later for incorporating a teacher or supervisor in the community.

Planning and organizational tasks of the training subsystem

A list of planning and organizational tasks of the training subsystem follows:

1. Establish a training unit to ensure that all the training needs of the overall literacy system can be fulfilled.
2. Establish an orientation program that is

(i) comprehensive: to cover decision-makers within the literacy system itself; decision-makers in the departments of extension, information and education, collaborating with the literacy system; and all relevant voluntary agencies, interest groups and non-governmental leadership.

(ii) continuous: to reflect policies and actions as they are modified during the life of the program, and

(iii) multi-level: to cover personnel at all the various levels, from the center to the village.

3. Prepare a training plan (based on the professional and instructional roles designed in collaboration with the administrative and instructional delivery subsystem and the curriculum and materials development subsystem) to provide (a) pre-service and (b) in-service training for all instructional and professional roles at all the various levels of the literacy system and including:

(i) policy analysists and planners
(ii) training design specialists and trainers
(iii) curriculum and materials development experts
(iv) writers of primers and reading materials
(v) experts in mass media and social mobilization
(vi) book distribution specialists and rural librarians
(vii) evaluators and data collectors
(viii) supervisors and counsellors
(ix) literacy teachers, and
(x) monitors of discussion groups and radio forums.

4. Design a staff development plan based on an analysis of the overall literacy system. Determine key points within the structure where important professional decisions will be made and plan for the professionalization of staff located at those key points.

4.1 While working with universities, prepare individual curriculum plans for each person sent to the university as part of the staff development effort.

4.2 If there is a choice between a degree program (that doesn't quite fit) and a specially designed non-degree program, choose the non-degree program.

4.3 Develop contracts between trainees and sponsors that require at least 3-5 years service from the trainees on the literacy program on their return from training.

5. Work with the national university (or teachers colleges as appropriate) to establish degree, diploma and certificate courses in adult education (with adult literacy as part of the curriculum).

5.1 Where separate degree, diploma or certificate courses in adult education/adult literacy are not possible, work toward the inclusion of adult education/adult literacy as a specialization within the education degree, diploma, or certificate.

6. Plan to utilize the existing training capacity of governmental and voluntary agencies engaged in extension, information dissemination and education (i) by making an inventory of all development training institutions in the country, and (ii) analyzing their existing curricula.

6.1 Work towards establishing a common core of "communication and adult education methods" in the training curricula of all field workers irrespective of the department of extention, information and education that employs them.

7. If needed, plan to organize special centers for the training of literacy teachers, discussion forum leaders and supervisors.

8. Establish a clear training philosophy: specific to context and task versus general enough for transfer; participatory versus formalized versus a mix of both; etc.

9. Develop an inventory of trainer resources by subject, level and location.

10. Develop a training model such as the Action Training Model (see Bibliography) that articulates the connection between training and current

and future professional duties of trainees.

11. Design training plans that,

(i) are based on an organic connection between pre-service training, in-service training and on-the-job socialization

(ii) include ideological and inspirational content

(iii) train for knowledge, attitudes and performance (KAP) as appropriate, and

(iv) help field workers understand the social organization and power structures of communities.

12. Organize study camps for officials from all levels (from the central secretariat down to the field level) to enable them to live for a few days among their client groups, to promote a symbiosis between theory and practice.

12.1 Organize sensitization sessions for those with formal education experience, but now working with the overall literacy system.

13. For each individual training course, ask the following design questions:

(i) Who will be trained?

(ii) By whom?

(iii) For what work?

(iv) In what setting?

(v) With what instructional resources and available training time? and

(vi) With what provision of feedback and follow-up?

14. Develop a comprehensive plan for the production of training materials for use by trainers in various training courses.

15. Establish "multiplier" training models so that large numbers of teachers can be trained by "teacher trainers" who in turn can be trained by "trainers of teacher trainers."

15.1 In decentralizing the training function, carefully and systematically share objectives, formats and training materials, if necessary by partial "packaging" of training.

16. Establish a newsletter for teachers, monitors, supervisors and trainers.

16.1 If possible, also establish a radio program for literacy workers, especially those working at the field level.

17. In collaboration with the evaluation subsystem, establish appropriate feedback mechanisms for the continuous improvement of the training function.

These tasks will become more and more concretely defined as literacy trainers work on these tasks. These will also need to be arranged into a time schedule for effective implementation of the training enterprise.

CHAPTER XIII

PLANNING AND ORGANIZING FOR LITERACY EVALUATION AND FOR UTILIZATION OF EVALUATION RESULTS

The "Evaluation Subsystem" is the last of the nine subsystems of the overall literacy system listed on pages 109-110. In the graphic on page 111, the evaluation subsystem intersects (as did the training subsystem) with all the other eight subsystems, directly or indirectly. The point being made is that evaluation needs and evaluation responsibilities are not confined to the evaluation subsystem alone, but permeate the whole literacy system.

Once again, and for the last time, we put the ABC/CLER model to work as a model for evaluation planning and for utilization of evaluation results.

Objectives of the evaluation subsystem (Block B)

The objectives of the evaluation subsystem may be stated as follows:

B.1 To establish a unit to evaluate and monitor the literacy campaign (program or project) on an on-going basis.

B.2 To establish an operational relationship between inside evaluation and outside evaluation, where outside evaluation is mandated.

B.3 To design and install a Management Information System (MIS) to monitor performance and to make quick appraisals both in regard to coverage and quality of the literacy program.

B.4 To establish a comprehensive system of built-in evaluation, complete with:

(i) processes and procedures to articulate the information needs of decision-makers at various levels of the literacy system, and to establish priorities among those information needs

(ii) organizational arrangements in regard to the design of evaluation studies to be undertaken; data collection, processing and storage of data; and flow of evaluative information across the system

(iii) arrangements for the effective utilization of information for day-to-day decision-making

(iv) set of standards and norms to judge the success of various aspects of the literacy program, including the evaluation effort itself, and

(v) arrangements for the provision of feedback to all interested constituencies, including learners, and local leadership in the communities.

The planner system relevant to the evaluation subsystem (Block A)

A CLER-description of the evaluation subsystem follows:

A.1 Configurations. The configurations typically involved will be the evaluation subsystem, *and* all the other subsystems of the overall literacy system, and at levels from the center down to the field. (It has to be understood that while there should be some whole-time evaluators employed by the overall literacy system to form an evaluation unit, *every* professional and program person within the overall literacy system, at *every* level of the system, is also a part-time evaluator.) Collaborating extension departments, universities and local and foreign consultants will also be part of the planner system.

A.2 Linkages. Formal linkages will exist among evaluators and program people within the overall literacy system, but these will have to be strengthened. Mutual expectations will have to be fully shared all across the system so that evaluation is not seen merely as the task of the "designated" evaluators. This is crucial when we are trying to establish built-in evaluation systems. Since collaboration and professional cooperation can never be ordered or codified, informal linkages will play a most important part. Linkages, both formal and informal, will also need to be established between the overall literacy system on the one hand and the network of extension institutions on the other hand.

A.3 Environment. Evaluation is difficult to separate from accountability in the eyes of most people. The search for causes of success or failure gets confused with the search for culprits responsible for failure. Consequently, the environment for evaluation is seldom supportive -- it is neutral at best, and inhibitive, more often.

A.4 Resources. Evaluation skills are unlikely to be widespread within the planner system. Therefore, the building up of cognitive resources will be one of the most important planning tasks. Again, existing institutions are unlikely to be engaged in systematic collection and utilization of information. (Most departments of extension, information and education do generate fortnightly, monthly and quarterly reports of various kinds, but few make any use of such reports to make informed decisions.) In other words, institutional resources will have to be strengthened for evaluations to be conducted. A minimal availability of all other resources will have to be assumed.

The plan adoption system relevant to the evaluation subsystem (Block C)

A CLER-based description of the plan adoption system follows:

C.1 Configurations. In the plan adoption system for evaluation, once again, there are two layers of plan adopters: (i) the program people within the literacy system, extension workers and voluntary teachers who are being asked to become evaluators and to supply information about their work; and (ii) the individual learners, local leaders and institutions within the community who are being asked to cooperate and to supply information about themselves, their friends, neighbors and families.

C.2 Linkages. Existing linkages within the first layer of plan adoption system have already been discussed above under A.2. (Please note that program people within the literacy system, extension workers and voluntary literacy teachers are in dual roles of "planners" and "plan adopters.") Linkages within the second layer will be those arising from existing social organization. As part of the MIS, linkages between the planner system at the field level and the plan adoption system will have to be somewhat formalized to ensure continuous flow of information and feedback. For the duration of special evaluation studies, additional networks of linkages may have to be created on a temporary basis.

C.3 Environment. Learners, local leaders and functionaries within the literacy system as well as outside are likely to be unenthused about providing information on themselves. Thus, the environment of the evaluation exercise is likely to be inhibitive.

C.4 Resources. Influence resources of the local leaders will be available to be used for inviting cooperation from learners and communities.

Existing institutions within communities could also be employed in making data collection possible with an economy of effort.

Planning and organizational tasks of the evaluation subsystem

A list of the planning and organizational tasks of the evaluation subsystem follows:

1. Establish a small evaluation unit. Underscore the idea that the evaluation unit is at the service of the program people and is not their watchful master. It may be useful to call the evaluation unit by the name of Evaluation Services and Support Unit (ESSU) to emphasize the service and support mission of evaluation.

2. Work toward creating, within the overall literacy system, a "culture of evaluation" by:

(i) holding system-wide orientation seminars to explain the concept of evaluation and particularly of built-in evaluation

(ii) promoting the idea that to be a good program specialist one has to be a good enough evaluator of one's own performance, and

(iii) developing a set of professional relationships between ESSU and each of the other subsystems of the overall literacy system.

3. Get representation on all professional committees at the various levels of the literacy system.

3.1 Establish informal relationships with all key functionaries within the literacy system; and offer them assistance in evaluation and data collection under their leadership and control.

4. Establish a system-wide committee of decision-makers to delineate

and prioritize information needs of the literacy system for effective implementation.

4.1 Establish a mechanism whereby information needs for program decisions can be reviewed systematically at various intervals of time, yet accommodating emergent needs in regard to information.

5. Establish a Management Information System (MIS) to collect information that is generated as part of the process of implementation, and develop a separate evaluation agenda to handle special information needs of the program.

5.1 In collaboration with other subsystems of the overall literacy system, design and test tools and instruments for the MIS

5.2 Print and distribute tools and instruments of the MIS

5.3 Hold seminars for all functionaries, at all levels of the system to explain the use of tools and instruments; and how to utilize information thus collected

5.4 Establish clear procedures for the processing, flow and storage of data collected for the MIS, at and across the various levels of the system.

6. In accordance with the agreed upon evaluation agenda (see 5 above), design each evaluation study in collaboration with ultimate users of information to be generated by the evaluation study.

6.1 For each evaluation study generate a formal proposal (unless participative or naturalistic methodologies are to be used).

6.2 Use methodologies that produce good enough information, but by the time such information is needed.

7. Establish a committee to distribute evaluation tasks among

institutions of higher education and the literacy system; and between internal and external evaluators.

8. Bring a "culture of evaluation" to the level of communities as well. Hold community gatherings to explain the concept and usefulness of evaluation to learners and local leaders.

8.1 To establish such a culture of evaluation at the community level, use participatory evaluation strategies to prepare communities in accepting the evaluation role.

8.2 Make sure that results obtained from all evaluations are fed back to the communities and to learners.

9. Establish an evaluation newsletter to contribute to the sharing of plans, designs and results of evaluation studies, and of quick appraisals.

By relating task analyses to real-life literacy campaigns, programs and projects, one should be able to make the above list of "Things to do" more concrete. Many of the tasks in the above list are so comprehensive that lists of numerous sub-tasks can be generated for each task. Again, the list of tasks and sub-tasks will need to be made time-sensitive. To implement actions, each task will need to be performed -- not at some time but at some particular time.

CHAPTER XIV

CONCLUSIONS

In Part I of this monograph, we have talked of planning and organization at a definitional and theoretical level. Hundreds of books have been written on the subject of planning and thousands on organizations. Within the scope of this monograph, we could not have done any more than provide a brief introduction to these two complex processes.

Definitions are important. What coins and bills are to economic transactions among people, words are to intellectual transactions. Words are the currency of our communications. For effective communication, we must learn to mind our language. We must have clear definitions for terms used in our writing and our discussions and use those terms responsibly. The definitions we have presented in Chapter I, we hope, will be found useful by planners, organizers, administrators and educators at various levels of the literacy system.

Theory, it has been wisely said, is the most practical thing. And indeed that is so. Theory is the sure-footed mule on whose back we can carry experience from one setting to another. To transport the experience of literacy workers from India or Tanzania or Cuba to our particular setting, we must use the vehicle of theory. Even to transport our own experience of the past into the present and then into the future systematically and coherently, we need to ride on the back of theory. In all human societies, older generations have told stories to teach younger generations. In modern times, to communicate experience, we not only tell stories, we also tell theories. Indeed, a theory is a general story -- one story about many somewhat similar stories.

We wish that the theoretical chapters on planning and organization (Chapters II and III) were read by our readers within such a frame of mind. At least, we hope that readers will return to these chapters with a conviction in the practicality of theories. The two theoretical chapters should change our conventional wisdom about the planning process and about organization and administration.

In Part II of the monograph, we have played the planning game using the ABC/CLER model as a model of "planning for implementation." Planning is always futuristic, and the future is always unknown. That makes planning a process that is at the same time difficult, complex, uncertain, and hazardous. In Chapters IV-XIII, we have exposed ourselves to one more charge: we have been general. We have been general because we were dealing with an ideal-type, fully-functioning literacy campaign, program or project; and we were visualizing typical Third World realities in regard to planning objectives, planner systems and plan adoption systems. It is for our readers now to plant these ideas firmly in the ground, in their own particular contexts -- to make the general, concrete.

It is our hope as well that the material in Part II of the monograph will have communicated to readers a feel for the process of inventing planning and organizational solutions. The lists of planning objectives and of possible tasks in regard to the various aspects of literacy work should give literacy planners something to work with -- some things to adopt, some things to adapt, and some things perhaps to reject.

We also wish to make clearer, what may have remained for some readers, the hidden curriculum of this book: First, planning is a collaborative enterprise. It can not be done alone; and it should not be done in isolation. Planning should be a social process in which all the stakeholders should participate. Second, in planning, once is not enough. Planning should be a continuous process.

Finally, let us be reminded that planning is a knowledge-based enterprise. We must know "how the world works"; we must know "how our particular planning sector works"; and we must know "how the planning process works." We hope the readers of this monograph have been enabled to take the first small step on the long journey of planning to serve people.

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